

**A high-resolution benthic stable-isotope record for the South Atlantic:
implications for orbital-scale changes in Late Paleocene – Early Eocene
climate and carbon cycling**

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Abstract

The Late Paleocene and Early Eocene were characterised by warm greenhouse climates, punctuated by a series of rapid warming and ocean acidification events known as “hyperthermals”, thought to have been paced or triggered by orbital cycles. While these hyperthermals, such as the Paleocene Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM), have been studied in great detail, the background low-amplitude cycles seen in carbon and oxygen-isotope records throughout the Paleocene–Eocene have hitherto not been resolved. Here we present a 7.7 million year (myr) long, high-resolution, orbitally-tuned, benthic foraminiferal

stable-isotope record spanning the late Paleocene and early Eocene interval (~52.5 – 60.5 Ma) from Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) Site 1262, South Atlantic. This high resolution (~2–4 kyr) record allows the changing character and phasing of orbitally-modulated cycles to be studied in unprecedented detail as it reflects the long-term trend in carbon cycle and climate over this interval. The main pacemaker in the benthic oxygen-isotope ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and carbon-isotope ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) records from ODP Site 1262, are the long (405 kyr) and short (100 kyr) eccentricity cycles, and precession (21 kyr). Obliquity (41 kyr) is almost absent throughout the section except for a few brief intervals where it has a relatively weak influence. During the course of the Early Paleogene record, and particularly in the latest Paleocene, eccentricity-paced negative carbon-isotope excursions ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, CIEs) and coeval negative oxygen-isotope ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) excursions correspond to low carbonate (CaCO_3) and coarse fraction (%CF) values due to increased carbonate dissolution, suggesting shoaling of the lysocline and accompanied changes in the global exogenic carbon cycle. These negative CIEs and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ events coincide with maxima in eccentricity, with changes in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ leading changes in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ by ~6 (± 5) kyr in the 405-kyr band and by ~3 (± 1) kyr in the higher frequency 100-kyr band on average. However, these phase lags are not constant, with the lag in the 405-kyr band extending from ~4 (± 5) kyr to ~21 (± 2) kyr from the late Paleocene to the early Eocene, suggesting a progressively weaker coupling of climate and the carbon-cycle with time. The higher amplitude 405-kyr cycles in the latest Paleocene are associated with changes in bottom water temperature of 2–4°C, while the most prominent 100 kyr-paced cycles can be accompanied by changes of up to 1.5°C. Comparison of the 1262 record with a lower resolution, but orbitally-tuned benthic record for Site 1209 in the Pacific allows for verification of key features of the benthic isotope records which are global in scale including a key warming step at 57.7 Ma.

1. Introduction

The Early Paleogene was climatically dynamic, with both sustained and transient episodes of elevated global temperatures and $p\text{CO}_2$ levels, as well as periodic carbon-cycle and climatic perturbations of varying magnitude. This period, therefore, provides a diversity of case studies for investigating the links between orbital forcing, climate and the carbon-cycle under a range of greenhouse conditions, and for determining the role of threshold events in the climate system in response to gradual changes in boundary conditions. This period is marked by long-term warming from the mid Paleocene (~58 Ma) to the Early Eocene, culminating in the Early Eocene Climatic Optimum (EECO, ~51 Ma) when global temperatures were the warmest of the past 90 myr (Zachos et al., 2001; Friedrich et al 2012). This change from a relatively cool Paleocene to a very warm Early Eocene is expressed in a decrease of global benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of $>1\text{‰}$ over ~9 myr, representing a change in bottom water temperatures on the order of $\sim 6^\circ\text{C}$ (Zachos et al., 2001). The early Paleogene carbon-cycle was also very dynamic, with long-term swings in the benthic carbon-isotope record ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) on the order of $\pm 2.5\text{‰}$ (Zachos et al., 2008).

Superimposed on these long-term climate and carbon-cycle trends were a series of high-amplitude, transient perturbations to the climate and carbon-cycle known as “hyperthermals”, the largest and best-studied of which is the Paleocene Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM; ETM-1; ~55.5 Ma) (e.g., Kennett and Stott, 1991; Zachos et al., 2005; Lourens et al., 2005; Röhl et al., 2007; Tripathi and Elderfield 2005; Sluijs et al., 2006; 2007; Röhl et al., 2007; Nicolo et al. 2007; McInerney and Wing, 2011). At least three such hyperthermals are recognised in the Early Eocene (ETM-1 to 3), which all share similar characteristics of rapid and large increases in global temperature accompanied by transient changes to the global carbon-cycle, as recorded by negative excursions in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$

records, and evidence for massive dissolution of deep-sea marine carbonates (e.g., Zachos et al., 2005; Lourens et al., 2005; Sluijs et al., 2009; Agnini et al., 2009; Stap et al., 2009; 2010a,b; McInerney and Wing, 2011, Komar et al., 2013). Similar events, of smaller magnitude have also been recorded from the Paleocene (e.g., Top C27n event, aka the LDE (Latest Danian Event), Dan C2 event, the Early Late Paleocene Event (ELPE) etc; Röhl et al., 2004; Westerhold et al., 2011; Coccioni et al., 2010; Quillévéré et al., 2008), as well as lower amplitude cyclic perturbations, particularly in the latest Paleocene (Cramer et al., 2003; Zachos et al., 2010). Construction of orbitally-tuned age models for the Early Paleogene events suggests that many if not all of the hyperthermals, and many of the other smaller perturbations during this interval, were paced by variations in Earth's orbit, with particular power in the long (405 kyr) and short (100 kyr) eccentricity bands (e.g., Lourens et al., 2005; Westerhold et al., 2007; 2008; Zachos et al., 2010; Hilgen et al., 2010; Galeotti et al., 2010).

The causal mechanism for the initiation of the large hyperthermals such as the PETM remains contentious, with the leading hypothesis involving the release of large quantities of reduced carbon from methane clathrate reservoirs (Dickens 1995, 1997; Zeebe et al., 2009). A mechanism to initiate release of this methane is still a matter of debate (e.g., Sluijs et al., 2007), but several triggers have been suggested, including: the crossing of a climatic threshold associated with the long-term warming trend (Lourens et al., 2005, Lunt et al, 2010, DeConto et al, 2012), or a pulse of NAIP volcanism that caused warming above the background values or release of thermogenic methane (Svensen et al., 2004; Storey et al., 2007; Wieczorek et al., 2013; Rampino, 2013). Other theories put forward to explain the origin of the hyperthermals include the large-scale release of Antarctic permafrost carbon due to favourable orbital configurations (DeConto et al, 2012), desiccation of a large marine basin (Higgins and Schrag 2006), or even a cometary impact (Kent et al., 2003), of which

the latter two seem unlikely due to a lack of evidence or a mechanism linking orbital cyclicity with these phenomenon.

While the highest amplitude hyperthermals have been studied in great detail and with various multi-proxy and modelling approaches, the preceding and intervening millions of years have thus far largely been constrained by lower-resolution, often composite, datasets, which provide insufficient resolution to ascertain the forcing behind the high-frequency variations in climate and the carbon-cycle, at least of the extent that they have been resolved (e.g., Zachos et al., 2001; Cramer et al., 2003; Zachos et al., 2010). In particular, the existing benthic stable-isotope record for the early Paleogene is composed of stacked records from many different deep-sea sites, and from various ocean basins (e.g. Zachos et al., 2001, and references therein). While useful for some applications, the stacked records lack the fidelity required to resolve climate and carbon cycle variations on orbital frequencies, and therefore to ascertain the true nature of the hyperthermals and other transient climate phenomena of the Paleogene. Arguably, resolution of the higher frequency patterns of paleoceanographic variability is also essential to resolving the origin of the long-term trends.

Here we present a stratigraphically continuous, high-resolution benthic foraminiferal stable-isotope record from ODP Site 1262 in the South Atlantic, which encompasses almost 8 myr of astronomically-tuned time spanning the Late Paleocene to Early Eocene (C24.2r to C26r). This complements and extends a shorter, high-resolution bulk stable-isotope record from Site 1262 (Zachos et al., 2010). Comparison of the new Atlantic isotopic record to a corresponding benthic stable-isotope record from the Pacific allows for isolation of the global from local signals (Westerhold et al., 2011). We then explore the implications of these records for the long-term evolution of the climate and marine carbon cycle response to orbital forcing over the late Paleocene-early Eocene as the planet slowly warmed.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Site location, lithology and sampling

ODP Site 1262 is located in the eastern South Atlantic (27°S) at a water depth of 4759 m, and is the deepest site drilled as part of the Leg 208 Walvis Ridge depth transect (Zachos et al., 2004). This site was located at a paleolatitude of ~34°S in the Paleogene (Fig 1). Three offset holes (A, B, C) were cored using advanced piston coring (APC) system ensuring complete recovery of the section with minimal coring disturbance. Shipboard splices of the holes was achieved using magnetic susceptibility data (Zachos et al., 2004) and later confirmed using high resolution XRF scanning Fe data (Westerhold et al., 2007, 2008). Early Paleogene sediments at Site 1262 predominantly consist of nannofossil oozes with fluctuating proportions of clay and variable preservation of carbonate microfossils, indicative of deposition above, but close to, a dynamic lysocline, at a paleodepth of ~3600 m (Zachos et al., 2004). Samples were taken from both Holes 1262A and 1262B. Samples were taken every 3 cm of the splice from Holes 1262A and 1262B between 109 and 185 mcd. According to the adopted chronology (see below), this implies a temporal resolution of ~2.5 kyr for much of the Latest Paleocene–Earliest Eocene (114–165 mbsf), and a slightly lower resolution ~3–4.5 kyr in the mid Late Paleocene (165–185 mbsf), and the post-ETM-2 Early Eocene interval (109–114 mbsf). Freeze-dried samples were soaked in distilled water to disaggregate, then washed through a 38 µm mesh sieve and rinsed with ethanol before being dried. Benthic stable-isotope data was generated from 2714 samples of the cosmopolitan deep-water benthic foraminifera *Nuttalides truempyi* picked from the >150 µm fraction (1900 at Santa Cruz and 814 at MARUM, Bremen).

2.2. Stable isotopes

On average, 11 specimens of *N. truempyi* were used for each isotopic analysis. Isotopic measurements were carried out on a Thermo-Finnigan MAT253 mass spectrometer interfaced with a Kiel Device (UCSC), and a Thermo-Finnigan MAT251 mass spectrometer interfaced with a Kiel Device (MARUM, Bremen). At UCSC, analytical precision (1σ) is based on repeat analysis of an in-house standard (Carrara marble), calibrated to the international standards NBS18 and NBS19, and averages ± 0.05 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and ± 0.08 ‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. At Bremen, analytical precision (1σ) is based on the in-house standard (Solnhofen Limestone) also calibrated to the international standard NBS19, and averages 0.05 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 0.07 ‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. All values are reported relative to VPDB. Additionally, 840 new samples from the mid-Late Paleocene (159–185 mcd) were analyzed at the MARUM to generate a new bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record, to compliment the existing Late Paleocene–Early Eocene bulk data from Zachos et al. (2010). The complete data set is available online in the PANGAEA database *doiXXXXXX [To be uploaded upon publication]*.

Conversions of benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ to temperature are made using Equation 1 of Bemis et al. (1998) with modifications to adjust *N. truempyi* values to *Cibicidoides* values after Katz et al. (2003) (Eq. 1), and assuming an ice-free $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$ value of -1.2 ‰ (VPDB). However, all isotope data presented in the figures herein are plotted as the original, uncorrected data relative to VPDB.

$$\text{Eq. 1} \quad \delta^{18}O_{\text{Cib}} = (\delta^{18}O_{\text{Nutt}} + 0.10) / 0.89$$

Where $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{Nutt}}$ is the measured $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of the analysed *N. truempyi* specimens, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cib}}$ is the corrected *Cibicidoides* equivalent value, both relative to VPDB.

2.3. Coarse Fraction

The wt % Coarse Fraction (%CF) is defined as the weight of the $>38 \mu\text{m}$ fraction in each sample, divided by the dry weight of whole rock sample prior to sample processing,

and provides a semi-quantitative measure of the degree of carbonate dissolution during and immediately after deposition. At Site 1262, this fraction is composed primarily of planktonic foraminifer shells, which range from intact to fragmented, with a larger proportion of the former relative to the latter.

2.4. Chronology, data filtering and time series analysis

The age model for Site 1262 is based on recognition of the stable long-eccentricity (405 kyr) cycle observed in XRF scanning Fe concentration data, reaching from the K-Pg boundary into the Early Eocene (Westerhold et al., 2007; 2008). Published biostratigraphic and magnetostratigraphic information was integrated with this cycle-counting method to confer a fully integrated orbitally-tuned chronology for this site. All absolute ages herein are based on tuning option 1 of Westerhold et al. (2008), to the orbital solution of Laskar et al. (2004). This existing age model has been marginally extended for the youngest part of the study interval, to include a new orbitally-tuned chronology for the Early Eocene encompassing Eccentricity₁₀₀ cycles 28–32 (~52.9–52.5 Ma). The extension of the age model has no effect on the conclusions in this paper as it merely builds upon the existing methodology from Westerhold et al. (2008), and no comparison is made with records from other sites for this time interval. It should be noted that an alternative age model has been proposed by Hilgen et al. (2010) for the Paleocene. This model is also based on recognition of the stable 405-kyr cycle and is consistent with Westerhold et al., (2008) in the interval presented here, therefore, the lead/lag relationships discussed below will be the same regardless of the age model applied.

Time series analysis and data filtering were performed on the orbitally-tuned isotopic and %CF records, to ascertain the dominant response of climate and the carbon-cycle to orbital forcing during the Paleocene–Eocene. Prior to analysis, all obvious outliers (e.g., single data points with values that differed >0.5 ‰ from adjacent data points) were

removed, along with the main body of the PETM (from initiation through the majority of the recovery period; ~55.4–55.5 Ma), to reduce the distorting effects these can have on spectral analysis results. A linear interpolation across the PETM was used to replace the hyperthermal interval. The records were then detrended graphically (KaleidaGraph 4.0) using a 15% running mean to remove the very long-term trends. The data were then cropped, such that all detrended $\delta^{13}\text{O}$ data <-0.6 and >0.4 and all detrended $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data <-0.4 and >0.3 ‰, were removed. The time series were then linearly resampled at 3 kyr intervals (AnalySeries 2.0 (Paillard et al., 1996)). Band pass filtering was conducted using AnalySeries 2.0 for the 405-kyr eccentricity at 0.002467 ± 0.0007 cycles/kyr (i.e., 565–316 kyr), 100-kyr eccentricity at 0.01 ± 0.003 (i.e., 77–143 kyr), and ~21 kyr precession at 0.0476 ± 0.0143 (16–30 kyr). Cross-spectral analysis to determine the coherency and phasing between the oxygen- and carbon-isotope records was performed using the Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral analysis in AnalySeries. Error bars on figures represent 97.5% CI values. MTM power spectra were generated using the kSpectra Toolkit using three tapers and a resolution of 2, where background estimate and therefore confidence levels (90%, 95%, and 99%) are based on a red noise estimation (Mann and Lees, 1996). Evolutionary wavelet spectra were obtained using software provided by C. Torrence and G. Compo (<http://paos.colorado.edu/research/wavelets>).

3. Results

3.1. Foraminiferal preservation

Preservation of *Nuttalides truempyi* was generally very good to good throughout the record, particularly in the earliest Eocene. All picked specimens appeared well preserved, with minimal signs of diagenetic overgrowth or infilling with secondary calcite. As

expected, throughout the record %CF and foraminiferal preservation tended to covary, whereby foraminifera from intervals with lower %CF showed signs of poorer preservation (i.e., signs of dissolution to the surface of the tests).

3.2. Long-term trends in the new stable-isotope and coarse fraction records

The 7.7 myr long bulk and benthic stable-isotope record, along with %CF and Fe data (Westerhold et al., 2007), is plotted against age in Fig. 2 and against depth in Fig. S1. The broad-scale trends in the benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record largely follow those known from the stacked benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record (Zachos et al., 2008), including the PCIM and the long-term decline of values into the early Eocene. The finer-scale trends in the benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record are paralleled by trends in the bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record, albeit offset by $\sim 1\text{--}1.5\text{‰}$ throughout much of the record (Fig. 2). The only discrepancy is near the crest of the Paleocene Carbon Isotope Maximum (PCIM; $\sim 57.7\text{ Ma}$), where a modest positive excursion in bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values is expressed as a much larger amplitude step in the corresponding benthic record (Figs. 2, S2).

The long-term decrease in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from the Late Paleocene to the Early Eocene associated with global warming, and well-known from the stacked benthic record (Zachos et al., 2008), can clearly be seen in the new single-site Site 1262 benthic record (Fig. S4). The exceptions are a large negative excursion in values associated with the late Paleocene ELPE ($\sim 58.9\text{ Ma}$; Fig. S2b), and a $\sim 3^\circ\text{C}$ cooling event between ~ 54.5 and 55 Ma , prior to the resumption of the long-term warming trend (Fig. S3). As in all carbonate-rich pelagic sediments, the bulk sediment oxygen isotope record is overprinted by recrystallization, which, at shallow burial depths and near seafloor temperatures, typically shifts the mean bulk $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values toward benthic values (Schrag et al., 1995; Fig. S4).

The %CF record also shows a long-term evolution in baseline values that can be correlated with the sedimentation rate and with long-term trends in the benthic and bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records. Generally low %CF values in the late Paleocene, pass through a period of

variable and fluctuating values in the latest Paleocene, before becoming significantly higher in the earliest Eocene (Figs. 2, S1).

3.3. Orbital cyclicity

In addition to the long-term evolution in climate and the carbon-cycle documented in the benthic stable-isotope and %CF records, variability associated with orbital forcing is prominent throughout this 7.7 myr interval. Spectral analysis of the data using band-pass filtering (Fig. 3), MTM power spectrum analysis (Fig. 4), and evolutive wavelet analysis (Fig. 5) all show that eccentricity is the dominant pacemaker of both the isotopic and %CF records, consistent with observations based on the original shipboard magnetic susceptibility data (Zachos et al., 2004; Lourens et al., 2005, high-resolution Fe intensity data (Westerhold et al., 2007; 2008) and the existing bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record (Zachos et al., 2010). The long eccentricity cycle (405 kyr) is the strongest frequency throughout, with the largest changes in benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values, but power is also concentrated in the short eccentricity (~100 kyr) band, with many of the largest amplitude and most abrupt CIEs occurring in association with this shorter cycle (e.g., the ETM2, H2, I1, D2, C2 etc; Fig. 2). The resolution and length of the new isotopic records allows the split peak of the short eccentricity bands to be resolved, with distinctive peaks in spectral power at ~125 and 95 kyr in both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Fig. 4). The high-resolution nature of the new Site 1262 records means that it is also possible to resolve precession (~21 kyr), which occurs as a prominent frequency in both the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records (Figs. 3, 4). Power in the obliquity band (~41 kyr) is weak throughout the Late Paleocene–Early Eocene in all of the records.

The influence of the various orbital cycles changes with time, with long and short eccentricity being most dominant in the Latest Paleocene (~56–57.5 Ma), and the Early Eocene (52.5–55 Ma) associated with large amplitude swings in both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values (Figs. 3, 5). Across some of the largest of these Paleocene 405-kyr cycles (e.g. B2–C2) the

equivalent of 2–4°C in bottom water temperature change occurs between eccentricity minima and maxima, while some of the largest 100 kyr-paced events, such as D2, are associated with changes in bottom water temperature of ~1.5°C (Fig. 2, S5). The influence of the 405-kyr cycle is weakest in the Late Paleocene prior to 57.7 Ma, and in the earliest Eocene in the immediate post-PETM interval, where power in the long eccentricity band is anomalously low despite persistent power in the short-eccentricity band (~100 kyr) (Figs. 3, 6).

Cross-spectral analysis of the benthic stable-isotope records suggests that climate and the carbon-cycle are highly coherent on orbital timescales, particularly so in the eccentricity and precession bands (Fig. 6). Over the whole record, changes in bottom water temperature ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) appear to lead changes in the carbon-cycle ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) in the eccentricity bands, with an average lag of ~6 (± 5) kyr at the 405-kyr frequency, and ~3 (± 1) kyr at the 100-kyr band (Fig. 6, Table S1). Closer inspection of the phase relationships through time reveals that these lags are not constant throughout the entire 7.7 myr long record (Fig. S6, Table S2), although care must be taken in interpreting changes in apparent phasing using cross-spectral analysis, as during low-amplitude cycles in the isotopic records (e.g., 58–59 Ma) the relative phasing can be difficult to determine. At the 405-kyr frequency the lag between climate and the carbon-cycle response is least conspicuous in the Late Paleocene, averaging only ~4 (± 5) kyr, but extends to an average of ~21 (± 2) kyr in the Early Eocene, post-ETM-2. The 23 and 19 kyr precessional components of both isotopic time series are close to being in-phase throughout, with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ leading or lagging by only 1–2 kyrs (Fig. S6). By contrast, cross-spectral analysis of the %CF and benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records suggest that these records are less coherent, but that the former often leads the latter at principle orbital frequencies by 2–20 kyrs (Figs. 6, S7, Tables S1, S2).

4. Discussion

The new benthic stable-isotope record from ODP Site 1262 is the longest, stratigraphically continuous, high-resolution record of its kind for the Late Paleocene–Early Eocene interval in the Atlantic. This unique record resolves both long-term trends in climate and the carbon-cycle, and short-term orbitally-paced variation.

4.1. Long-term trends in Paleogene climate and carbon-cycling

4.1.1. Inferences from the new benthic stable-isotope record

Comparison of the Site 1262 benthic stable-isotope record to the existing North Pacific record from ODP Site 1209 (Westerhold et al., 2011) reveals remarkably close correlation between benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at the two sites, thus indicating relatively uniform bottom water temperature between deep basins throughout the late Paleocene and early Eocene on long and short-time scales (Fig. 7). The long-term warming trend over this time, was likely driven by greenhouse forcing from periodic outgassing of volcanogenic CO_2 from the North Atlantic Igneous Province (NAIP), which was active throughout the latest Paleocene–earliest Eocene from ~62 to ~52 Ma (e.g., Sinton and Duncan, 1998; Saunders et al., 1997; 2007, Storey et al. 2007). The second phase of NAIP activity, which initiated at ~57.5 Ma and was associated with extensive rifting and crustal extension in the North Atlantic, was vigorous and likely led to the emplacement of significant quantities of new crustal material and large subsequent volcanic emissions (Sinton and Duncan, 1998; Saunders et al., 1997). The beginning of this phase coincides with the relatively rapid initiation of the deep-sea warming trend seen in both the Atlantic (Site 1262) and the Pacific (Site 1209), suggesting both that the onset of volcanism was relatively abrupt and that sufficient volumes of volcanic CO_2 accumulated in the atmosphere over millions of years to sustain increasing global temperatures into the Early Eocene (Fig. 7; Arthur, 1980; Corfield and Cartlidge, 1992; Zachos et al., 2008; Westerhold et al., 2011).

In the Late Paleocene, prior to the initiation of the warming trend, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values at Sites 1263 and 1209 increased to the most positive values of the Cenozoic, forming the broad peak of the PCIM (~57–58 Ma) (Fig. 2). The relatively cool greenhouse conditions of the latest Paleocene (~63–59 Ma) likely facilitated the accumulation of carbon in reduced reservoirs such as methane hydrates, peat, and/or permafrost, which led to a net positive shift in the residual oceanic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ budget (Shackleton et al., 1984; Shackleton, 1986; Corfield and Cartlidge, 1992; Corfield 1996; Kalkreuth, 2004). This large-scale carbon burial also likely led to the drawdown of atmospheric CO_2 , which corresponds with benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ evidence for a global cooling at this time (Zachos et al., 2008; Fig. 2). Evidence from sulphur isotopes and the large coal reserves of Late Paleocene age, suggests a large proportion of this massive organic-matter burial occurred on land in peat swamps, although it is likely that other reduced reservoirs such as oligotrophic or marginal marine basins, and methane clathrates, also had a role to play (e.g., Thompson and Schmitz, 1997; Beerling, 2000; Kurtz et al., 2003, Kalkreuth, 2004; Hilting et al., 2008). When the long-term warming trend was initiated ~57.7 Ma, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values also began a long-term decline, likely reflecting less favourable conditions for the sequestration of organic matter either on land or in the oceans (Fig. 2).

Although the long-term trends in the new benthic stable-isotope record largely replicate the gross trends known from the composite stacked records (e.g. Zachos et al., 2008), several new features can be discerned that are previously undocumented. For example, the short ~500 kyr cooling reversal in the Eocene observed in the new benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record (~54.5–55.0 Ma), interrupts the long-term warming trend and has not previously been resolved (Figs. 2, S2). The cause of this cooling is enigmatic but could have been caused by a brief, as yet unidentified, cessation of volcanogenic CO_2 production associated with the NAIP. Intriguingly, the main ash phase associated with the second phase of NAIP activity

occurred ~800 to 1100 kyr after the onset of the PETM (~54.7 –54.4 Ma), which coincides closely with the initiation of a sharp negative trend in benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and the termination of the cooling interval, suggesting a possible volcanogenic source for both the influx of isotopically light carbon and the subsequent warming (Fig. 2; Westerhold et al., 2009; Saunders et al. 1997).

The covariance of the Site 1262 and 1209 benthic oxygen-isotope records on orbital time scales (Fig. 7) demonstrates that changes in temperature are global in scale, consistent with orbital forcing and a dominant high-latitude source of bottom waters. Minor apparent offsets (on the order of ~100 kyr) between some of the orbitally-paced oscillations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ between sites, may be a factor of either fine-scale age model discrepancies between the two sites or the lower sedimentation rate at Site 1209 over certain intervals, i.e., 55.5–56.5 Ma. The consistent ~0.2% offset in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic values between the Site 1262 and Site 1209 records suggests the presence of older deep / deep intermediate water in the Pacific basin compared to the South Atlantic (Fig. 7). This suggests a dominant Southern Ocean source for deep-water and longer residence time in the larger basin, similar to modern global circulation patterns, and is consistent with existing inferences regarding Paleogene ocean circulation from both low-resolution carbon-isotope compilations (e.g., Corfield 1996; Corfield and Cartlidge 1992; Cramer et al., 2009) and ϵNd studies (e.g., Thomas et al., 2003).

4.2. Inferred trends in lysocline depth from %CF and Fe records

The Site 1262 % CF record can be used to approximate relative changes in regional lysocline depth (e.g., Kelly et al., 2005), as in pelagic settings the %CF is largely controlled by the preservation and dissolution of planktonic foraminifera, which is strongly coupled to the depth of the regional lysocline (e.g., Broecker and Clark, 1999). Other measures such as benthic abundance and fragmentation index may provide complimentary information (e.g.,

Hancock and Dickens, 2005; Petrizzo et al., 2008). The depth of the lysocline is controlled by a number of physiochemical conditions within the deep-ocean and uppermost part of the sediment column, including temperature and the concentration of bottom water CO_3^{2-} . On the time scale of higher frequency orbital cycles (<100 kyr), shifts in the flux of CO_2 between the ocean/atmosphere and sediment reservoirs can drive fluctuations of the CCD on a global scale. On longer time scales, additional factors influence the lysocline and CCD, particularly carbon emission and weathering fluxes (Ridgwell & Zeebe, 2005; Pälike et al., 2012). Previous studies have revealed a dynamic and variable CCD history for the Paleocene-Eocene, with significant shifts in regional carbonate preservation at depth (e.g., Zachos et al. 2004; Hancock and Dickens, 2005). These broad-scale trends in lysocline depth are replicated in the %CF record at Site 1262 (Fig. 2).

Locally, the lysocline can shift with changes in circulation patterns, however, the long-term trends in %CF values from both sites 1262 and 1209, which are plotted on the same timescale, are strongly coherent through most of the record, suggesting that the lysocline trends are likely global rather than regional (Fig. 7; Westerhold et al., 2011). Periods of low %CF during the Late Paleocene (~ 58 – 59.5 Ma) correspond to periods of low overall sedimentation rate at both Sites 1262 and 1209 (Fig. 2), which along with the low % CaCO_3 content suggests a relatively shallow lysocline with respect to the paleodepth of the sites (Site 1262 ~ 3600 m; Site 1209 ~ 1500 m) (Zachos et al., 2004; Westerhold et al., 2007; 2011). This shallowing of the lysocline occurs synchronously with the termination of the cooling trend and the initiation of a steep positive trend in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, suggesting a coupling between long-term organic matter burial and the carbonate chemistry of the oceans.

The increase in sedimentation rate at ~ 57.7 – 58 Ma is matched by a concurrent increase in %CF and % CaCO_3 , which persists into the Early Eocene, suggesting a deepening of the CCD at this time in both the Pacific and the Atlantic (Fig. 2; Zachos et al., 2004;

Westerhold et al., 2011; Hancock and Dickens, 2005), and likely also the Indian Ocean (Hancock et al., 2006). The apparent covariance between trends in CCD depth across multiple ocean basins precludes regional mechanisms such as a switch in deep-ocean ventilation, as that would be expected to drive opposite trends in different ocean basins (e.g., Pälike et al., 2012). Instead, with higher global temperature and humidity, the overall deepening trend from the Late Paleocene to the Early Eocene could have been driven by increased chemical weathering rates and thus the supply of solutes to the ocean, thereby suppressing the CCD (e.g. Hilting et al., 2008), although changes in sea level and the burial of neritic carbonates could also have a role to play.

4.3. The Early Late Paleocene Event

The Early Late Paleocene Event (ELPE), synonymous with the Mid Paleocene Biotic Event (MPBE; 58.9 Ma), is a horizon of intense dissolution and faunal turnover, previously recorded from sites on Shatsky Rise in the North Pacific, on Walvis ridge in the South Atlantic, and at the Zumaia section in the western Pyrenees (Röhl et al., 2004; Petrizzo, 2005; Bralower et al., 2006; Bernaola et al., 2007). Existing records suggest a concurrent shift in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values during this extremely severe dissolution event, however, poor carbonate preservation at Site 1209 meant it was impossible to determine whether or not the ELPE was a global hyperthermal-like event (Westerhold et al., 2011). The Site 1262 bulk and benthic stable-isotope record clearly shows that the ELPE event also occurred in the Atlantic, consistent with previous observations based on natural gamma-ray peaks at Site 1051 or Fe intensity and $\%\text{CaCO}_3$ at ODP Leg 208 sites (e.g., Norris et al., 2001; Westerhold et al., 2008). The event here is marked by the characteristically low sedimentation rates, strong dissolution of carbonate, a prominent spike in Fe intensity, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values which shift first to more positive then to more negative values in both the benthic and bulk records (Fig. 2,

S2b). Interestingly, this event is also characterized by rapid negative excursions in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values, suggesting rapid warming of up to $\sim 4^\circ\text{C}$ above background Late Paleocene temperatures of $\sim 8^\circ\text{C}$, making it one of the larger events of the Paleogene (Fig. S2b). The apparent oscillating nature of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record during this interval, also visible in the somewhat noisy nature of the benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data, may be due to increased bioturbation and therefore reworking of foraminifera disrupting the primary stratigraphy across this event (Fig. S4). The presence of this perturbation in the Atlantic, Pacific and Northern Tethyan Ocean suggests the ELPE was a global phenomenon, likely involving a large-scale release of reduced carbon sufficient to cause significant shoaling in the already relatively shallow CCD, and causing sufficient disturbance to global climate to trigger a biotic turnover. However, the corresponding response in the carbon-isotope record was relatively minor ($<0.5\text{‰}$ change in benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$), perhaps suggesting a different mode and mechanism compared to the later and much larger hyperthermals such as the PETM. Interestingly, the ELPE marks the end of the long-term mid Paleocene cooling phase suggesting a major change in climate boundary conditions and/or the crossing of a climatic threshold into a long-term warming regime (Fig. 2).

4.4. The peak-PCIM event and onset of long-term warming

A large positive step in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values at ~ 57.7 Ma, near the middle of chron C25r and the peak of the PCIM, concurrent with a prominent negative step in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values, was first recognized in the high-resolution benthic record from Site 1209; however, it was unclear whether this represented a local feature related to a change in bottom water source in the North Pacific or a global signal affecting more than one ocean basin (Westerhold et al., 2011). The presence of this event in the new benthic stable-isotope records from Site 1262 in the South Atlantic clearly shows the event is global (Figs. 7; S2a). The very sharp

positive step in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of 1 ‰ can be explained by a sudden shift in the proportion of carbon removed from the system through either carbonate or organic matter burial. Changes in organic burial fluxes, however, are normally associated with the relatively slow expansion (~kyr scale) of sedimentary reservoirs such as permafrost, marine organic matter, peats, or similar, which is difficult to envisage occurring sufficiently rapidly. The concurrent warming step, demonstrated by a decrease in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of ~0.5‰, may be related to CO_2 release from the onset of NAIP phase 2 (Figs. 7; S2a; Westerhold et al., 2011). The coeval warming and positive step in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values is reminiscent of the early stages of Oceanic Anoxic Events (OAEs), where warming climate led to an expansion of oxygen minimum zones or sluggish circulation and greater organic carbon burial, thus triggering a positive $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ excursion in the oceans (Kump and Arthur, 1999). It is possible that the southwest Pacific was the site of this putative excess carbon burial (Hollis et al., 2014), however, further investigation is required to reconcile the nature of carbon cycle and climate coupling during this event.

4.5. Orbital pacing of Paleogene climate and carbon-cycling

Previous studies have shown that eccentricity and precession are dominant pacemakers of Late Cretaceous–Paleogene climate and carbon cycling, as expressed by cyclic changes in lithology and stable-isotope records in marine sedimentary sequences (Herbert and Dhondt, 1990; Herbert, 1997; Pälike et al., 2006a, b; Röhl et al., 2007; Dinarès-Turell et al., 2007; Westerhold and Röhl, 2009; Voigt et al., 2012; Westerhold et al., 2007; 2008; Woodard et al., 2011). However, the apparent power at these frequencies, particularly in eccentricity, was difficult to reconcile within the context of standard orbital-climate theory. In the Site 1262 records, the strong covariance at the eccentricity frequencies between benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and %CF, provides insight as to the origin of the perturbations. At both the long and short eccentricity bands, negative excursions in benthic

$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are matched by concurrent negative excursions in benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and %CF values suggesting strong coupling of climate and the carbon cycle (Fig. 2). At both long and short eccentricity maxima, increases in bottom water temperature led changes in the carbon-cycle (Fig. 5), suggesting that warming climates triggered the release of light carbon from reduced reservoirs, likely further enhancing warming as a positive feedback (i.e., non-linear response). The accompanying reduction in %CF suggest these injections of carbon led to shoaling of the CCD; however, the phasing relationship between %CF and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Figs. 6, S7) suggests that carbonate dissolution occurred prior to the release of the reduced carbon, although this may be an artifact of post-depositional sediment burn-down during the negative CIEs (e.g., Zachos et al., 2005; Panchuk et al., 2008).

The reservoir of ^{13}C depleted carbon responsible for fueling these orbitally-paced CIEs is currently unknown, though there are several options. Based on sedimentary records of thick coal deposits and marine isotopic records, it is assumed that large volumes of organic matter were periodically stored on the land in the form of peat during the latest Paleocene, likely due to the relatively cool greenhouse conditions which prevailed at the time (e.g., Shackleton, 1986; Beerling, 2000; Kurtz et al., 2003; Hilting et al., 2008; Shearer et al., 1995; Ziegler et al., 2003; Kalkreuth, 2004). Similarly, large masses of reduced carbon might have accumulated in permafrost on Antarctica and in the circum-Arctic during this time, due to the absence of a large ice-cap and the exposure of carbon-rich tundra and forest ecosystems to seasonally freezing conditions (e.g., DeConto et al., 2012). Another potentially large sedimentary source of light carbon is methane hydrate, which is likely to have existed in the warm, relatively organic-rich Paleogene shelf regions (e.g., Dickens, 2011). In theory, all three of the aforementioned reduced carbon reservoirs should have been sensitive to variations in orbital forcing and climate, and possibly responding in kind.

Eccentricity largely affects climate through the modulation of precession, in that precession has its greatest influence when eccentricity is at its maximum, which can clearly be seen in filter outputs of the new Site 1262 record, where the amplitude of precession covaries with the amplitude of both long and short eccentricity (Fig. 3; e.g., Herbert, 1997). In theory, methane hydrate deposits on the continental shelves and slopes would be very sensitive to the small increase in average temperature associated with high eccentricity and precession (Lunt et al. 2011). Any such release of biogenic methane would be characterized by a sharp negative excursion in carbon isotopes, accompanied by enhanced warming through climate-carbon-cycle feedback mechanisms and potentially further destabilization of methane deposits (e.g., Dickens, 2011). However, the extent of methane hydrate reserves in a much warmer world than the present is contentious, and even modern inventories are the subject of continuing debate (e.g., Kvenvolden & Lorenson, 2001; Buffett & Archer, 2004; Gu et al., 2011).

Both low-latitude peat and high-latitude permafrost could potentially be responsive to small changes in climate associated with eccentricity-modulated precessional changes in seasonal insolation. Low-latitude peat extent in the early Paleogene is likely to have been sensitive to changes in precipitation patterns, in the same way that African lake levels are strongly correlated to precession-driven changes in precipitation in the Pleistocene, with eccentricity as an additional modulator (e.g., Trauth et al., 2007). High eccentricity (high precession) would have driven more seasonally uneven rainfall on the continents creating “monsoon like” conditions (e.g., Short et al., 1991; Crowley et al., 1992; Rutherford and D’Hondt, 2000) less conducive to the storage of organic matter, and leading to periodic variations in the flux of carbon to and from the soil reservoirs (Zachos et al., 2010).

Permafrost may also be sensitive to changing insolation; however, it is more likely to be sensitive to direct changes in temperature associated with both longer and more intense

insolation during summer months during precessional maxima, as warming would cause a loss in the area of land able to sustain sub-freezing conditions throughout the year (e.g., Schuur et al., 2008; DeConto et al., 2012). A strong 405 kyr beat in Antarctic ice coverage, in step with changes in the carbon-cycle, has recently been modelled for the last 5 Ma, suggesting that the polar regions are very sensitive to long eccentricity forcing (de Boer et al., 2014). It may be that even during periods of relatively low ice volume, such as the Paleogene, this sensitivity to eccentricity remained, expressed in terms of the response in the extent of permafrost regions. Indeed, the lack of a coherent obliquity signal in any of the Site 1262 isotopic or %CF records (Figs. 4, 6), suggests that polar ice volumes were minimal during the Early Paleogene, as glaciated high-latitudes are known to be particularly sensitive to obliquity forcing in other periods of time such as the Neogene (e.g., Raymo and Nisancioglu, 2003; Huybers & Wunsch, 2005; Naish et al., 2009). This stands in contrast to other lower-resolution Late Paleocene–Early Eocene marine stable-isotope records, which have suggested an obliquity beat is one of the dominant components of the coupled climate-carbon-cycle at this time (e.g., DeConto et al., 2012).

Interestingly, the onset of the long-term negative trend in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values at ~ 57.7 Ma also marks a transition toward more pronounced eccentricity-paced excursions in climate ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and the carbon cycle ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) that characterize the latest Paleocene (Fig. 2), suggesting a generally higher sensitivity to orbital forcing during this time. In theory, a sudden rise in CO_2 emissions along with warming would enhance processes sequestering carbon, from rock weathering to productivity to carbon burial, as manifested by the jump in carbonate accumulation at 57.7 Ma. The dynamics of climate-carbon cycle feedbacks (i.e., non-linear) might have shifted as well so as to enhance sensitivity to orbital forcing, leading to larger amplitude cycles. Alternatively, the large stocks of reduced sedimentary carbon (in either methane, permafrost, or peat), built up during the PCIM, were now primed for

destabilisation and release during the transient warmer intervals associated with eccentricity maxima. As the long-term warming trend progressed from the late Paleocene through the early Eocene, the volumes of reduced carbon would have been reduced, leading to progressively smaller 405-kyr cycle paced perturbations in the Early Eocene (e.g., DeConto et al., 2012; Fig. 2).

The changing phase relationship through time between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at the 405-kyr band, could potentially offer clues as to the underlying mechanisms, although a change in phasing is not unexpected as other boundary conditions (e.g. $p\text{CO}_2$, sea level, and gateways) were also shifting over this time. Close coupling of climate and the carbon cycle is inferred for the latest Paleocene (lag of only $\sim 4 (\pm 5)$ kyr between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ at the 405-kyr band) when reduced carbon reservoirs (e.g., methane, permafrost) were apparently large and the system was very sensitive to eccentricity forcing (Fig. S5), whereas the coupling became less close in the very warm Early Eocene interval ($\sim 21 (\pm 2)$ kyr lag between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$), likely due to smaller and less sensitive stocks of reduced carbon, e.g., where higher temperatures reduced the available area of possible storage of methane clathrates on the continental shelves (e.g., Dickens et al., 1995; Dickens, 2011; Komar et al., 2013).

As previously noted (Zachos et al., 2010), although the initiation of the PETM may have been in-phase with the 100-kyr cycle, it does not appear to be in phase with the 405-kyr cycle. Additionally, in spite of the clear long-term warming trend in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from the latest Paleocene through to the earliest Eocene, there is little difference in the minimum $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values reached during the ~ 1.5 myrs prior to the PETM, as the 100 kyr-paced events such as the D2 and C2 all reach values of ~ 0.3 ‰ (Fig. S5). This, in combination with the very high amplitude and the extended recovery time of the event, suggests that the PETM required an extra “push” to achieve such extreme warming and carbon-cycle disruption. This is likely to have involved the catastrophic addition of extra carbon from sedimentary sources such as

methane clathrates, permafrost, or thermogenic methane, not necessarily triggered by changes in orbitally-paced insolation, but purely as a positive feedback.

5. Summary

The 7.7 myr long, orbitally-tuned benthic stable-isotope record from the South Atlantic ODP Site 1262 is the longest stratigraphically complete record spanning the Late Paleocene and Early Eocene. The long-term trends in the carbon-cycle closely follow those known from the existing bulk carbon-isotope record from this site and the stacked global benthic record, however, the new benthic oxygen-isotope record reveals interesting previously unknown features, such as the abrupt warming step at the peak of the PCIM at 57.7 Ma, and the brief cooling reversal in the earliest Eocene ~54.7 Ma.

The high-resolution nature of the benthic record allows the power and phasing of high-frequency orbitally-paced variations to be resolved, which are clearly dominated by precession and eccentricity. Changes in the distribution of heat and precipitation associated with eccentricity cycles (and modulation of precession) likely influenced the flux into and out of sedimentary reduced carbon reservoirs such as permafrost, peat, or methane hydrates. The increasing lag between benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records at the 405-kyr band suggests a progressively weakening of the connection between climate and the carbon-cycle from the Late Paleocene into the Early Eocene. The lack of power in the obliquity band throughout the record strongly suggests a low polar ice-volume during the Early Paleogene, in-line with other paleontological and geochemical proxies for global warmth at this time.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary materials related to this article can be found online at *doi: XXXXXX [Address to be confirmed upon publication]*.

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Figures:

Figure 1. Paleogeography at the Paleocene-Eocene boundary, ~55 Ma. Adapted from Ocean Drilling Stratigraphic Network (ODSN) Paleomap project (<http://www.odsn.de/odsn/services/paleomap/paleomap.html>).

Figure 2. ODP Site 1262 bulk and benthic stable isotope, %CF and Fe area data (re)plotted against age (solution 1, Westerhold et al., 2008, updated for the post ETM-2 period). Bulk $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data from Lourens et al., 2005; Zachos et al., 2005, 2010; PETM benthic stable isotope data from McCarren et al., 2008; ETM benthic stable isotope data from Stap et al., 2010; Fe data from Westerhold et al., 2007. To the left of the dashed grey line is the benthic stable isotope and %CF data generated at UCSC (except for ETM-2), and to the right is the data

generated at MARUM. See Supplementary Information Fig. S1 for all data plotted against depth.

Figure 3. Band pass filters for the detrended, linearly interpolated, orbitally-tuned benthic carbon-isotope (red) and oxygen-isotope (blue) records, for principal orbital frequencies: long and short eccentricity (405 (0.0024 ± 0.0007); 100 kyr (0.01 ± 0.003)) and precession (21 kyr (0.0476 ± 0.0143)). “W” numbers at base of figure indicate windows of time referred to in Figs. S6–7.

Figure 4. Multi-Taper Method (MTM) power spectrum for the Site 1262 benthic isotope and %CF records, 52.5–60.6 Ma.

Figure 5. Wavelet analysis of Site 1262 data. A) %CF data, B) benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data, C) benthic $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data.

Figure 6. Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral phase estimates, coherence and phasing, between (A) benthic oxygen- and carbon-isotope records, and (B) %CF and benthic carbon-isotope records, for the entire Site 1262 record, (52.5–60.6 Ma). Cross-spectral phase estimates for discrete windows of Eocene and Paleocene time are shown in Figs. S6–S7.

Figure 7. Site 1262 (Atlantic) vs. Site 1209 (Pacific; Westerhold et al., 2011) benthic isotope, sedimentation rate, and %CF data plotted against the same age model (Solution 1, Westerhold et al., (2008), updated for the post ETM-2 period).

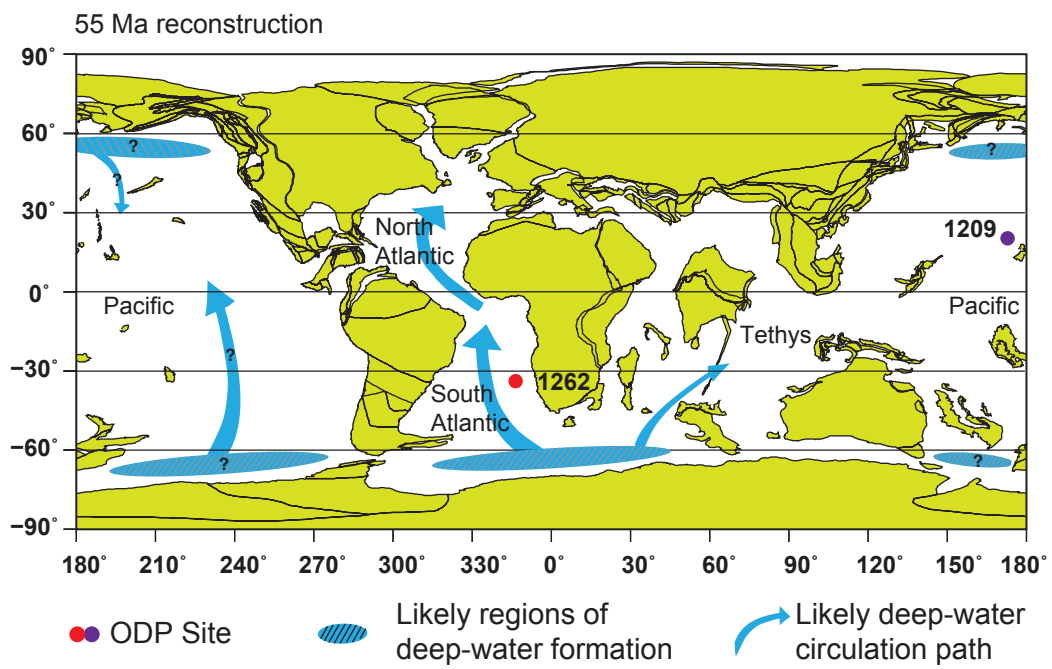


Figure 1.

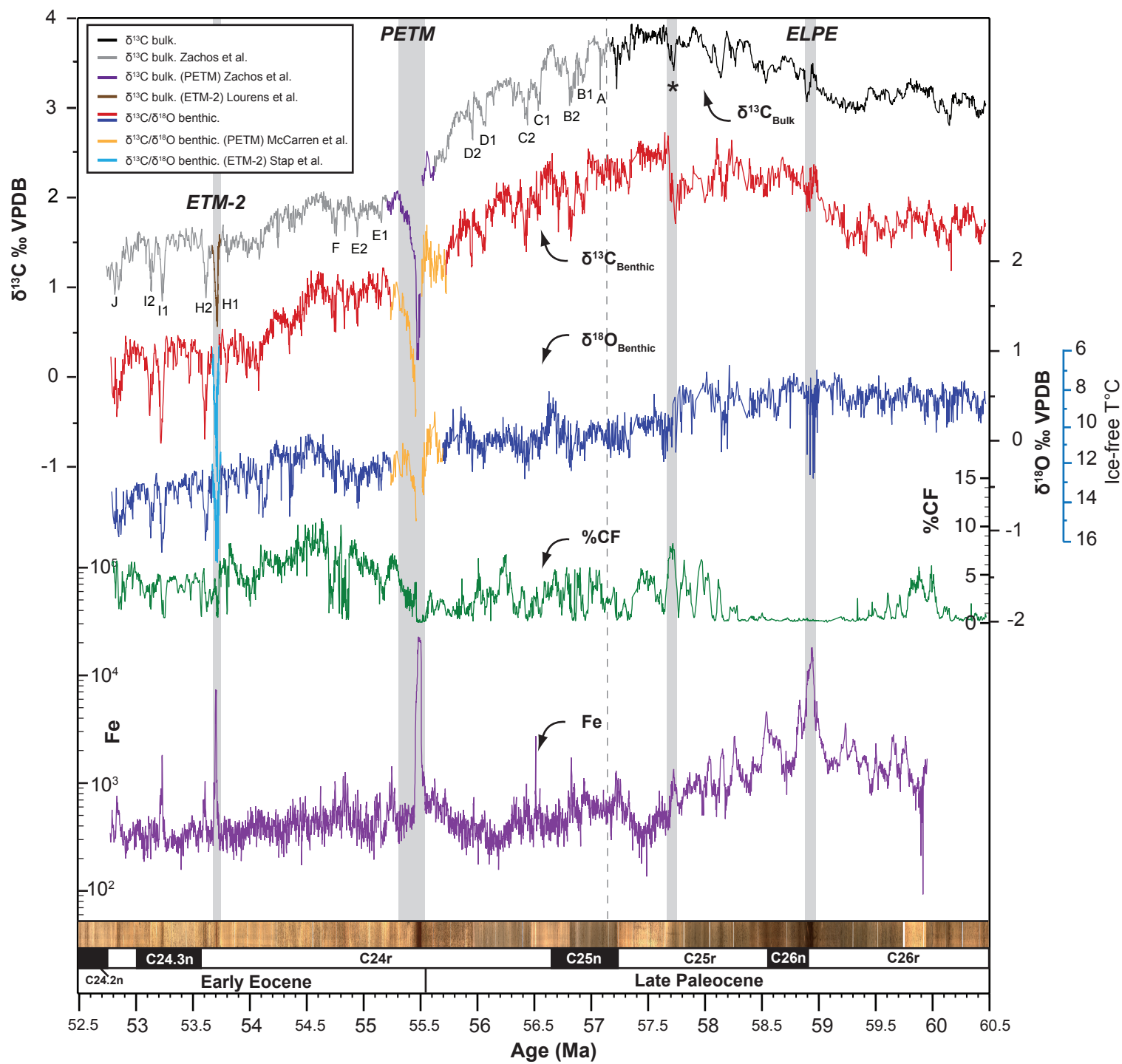


Figure 2.

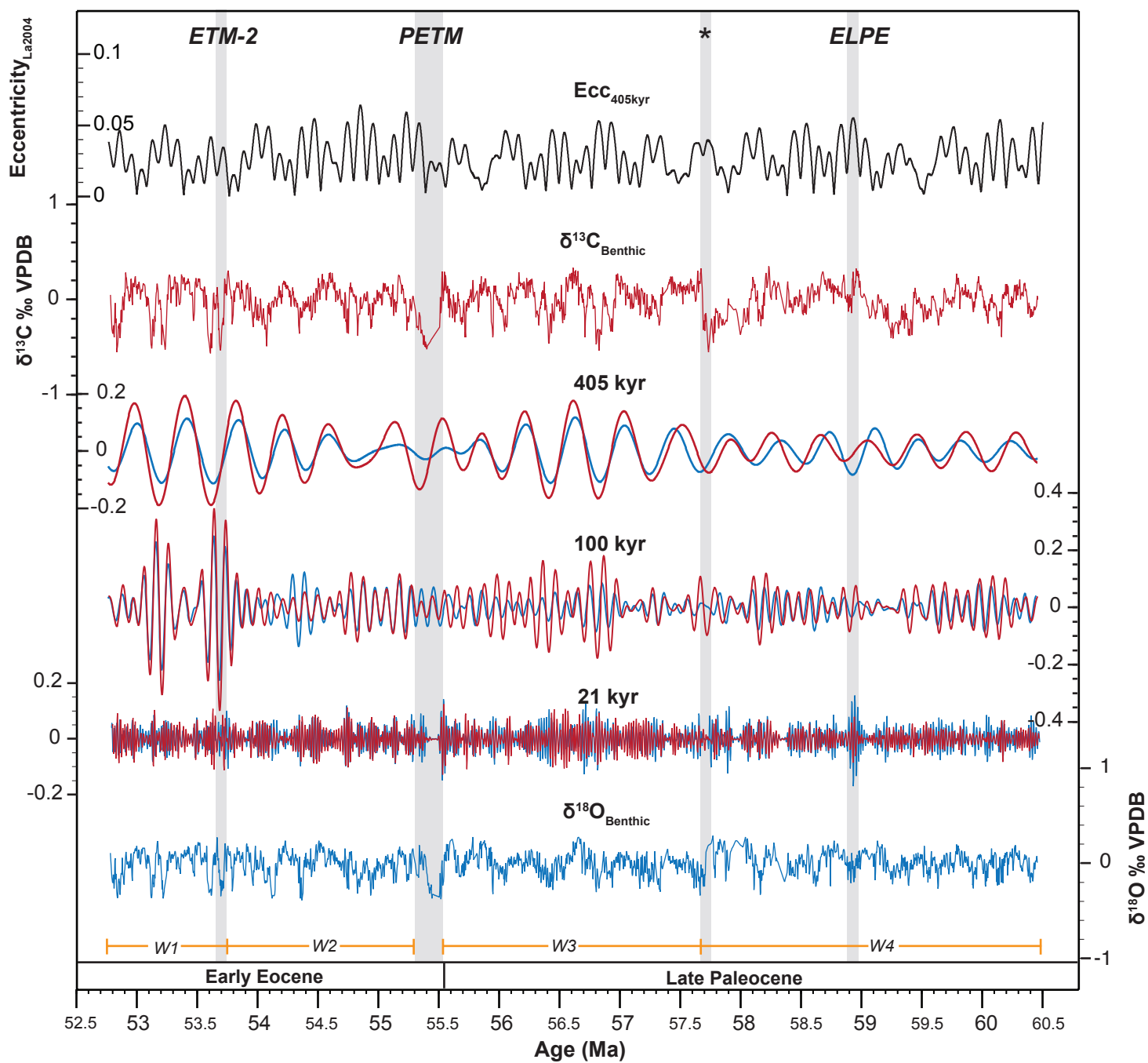


Figure 3.

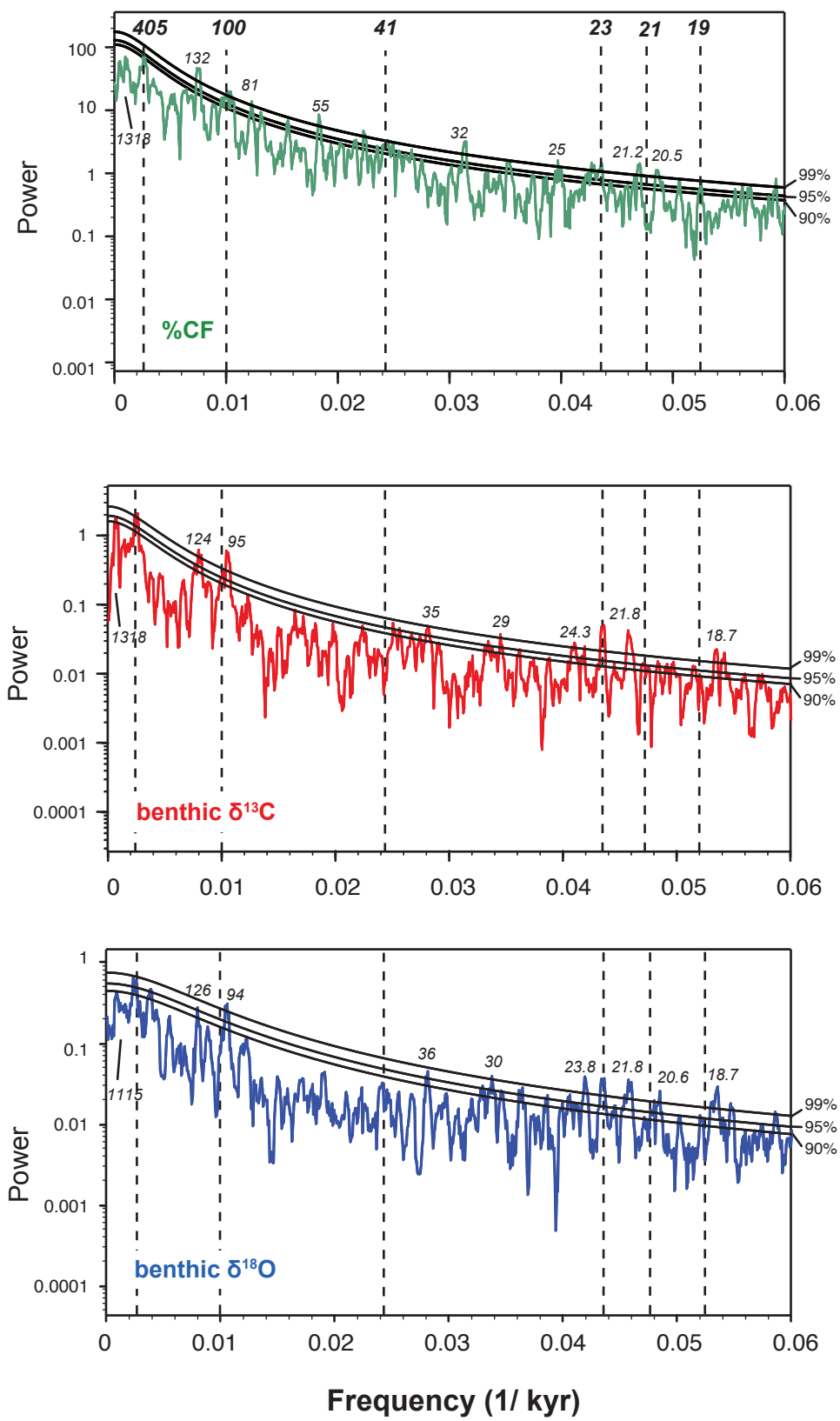


Figure 4.

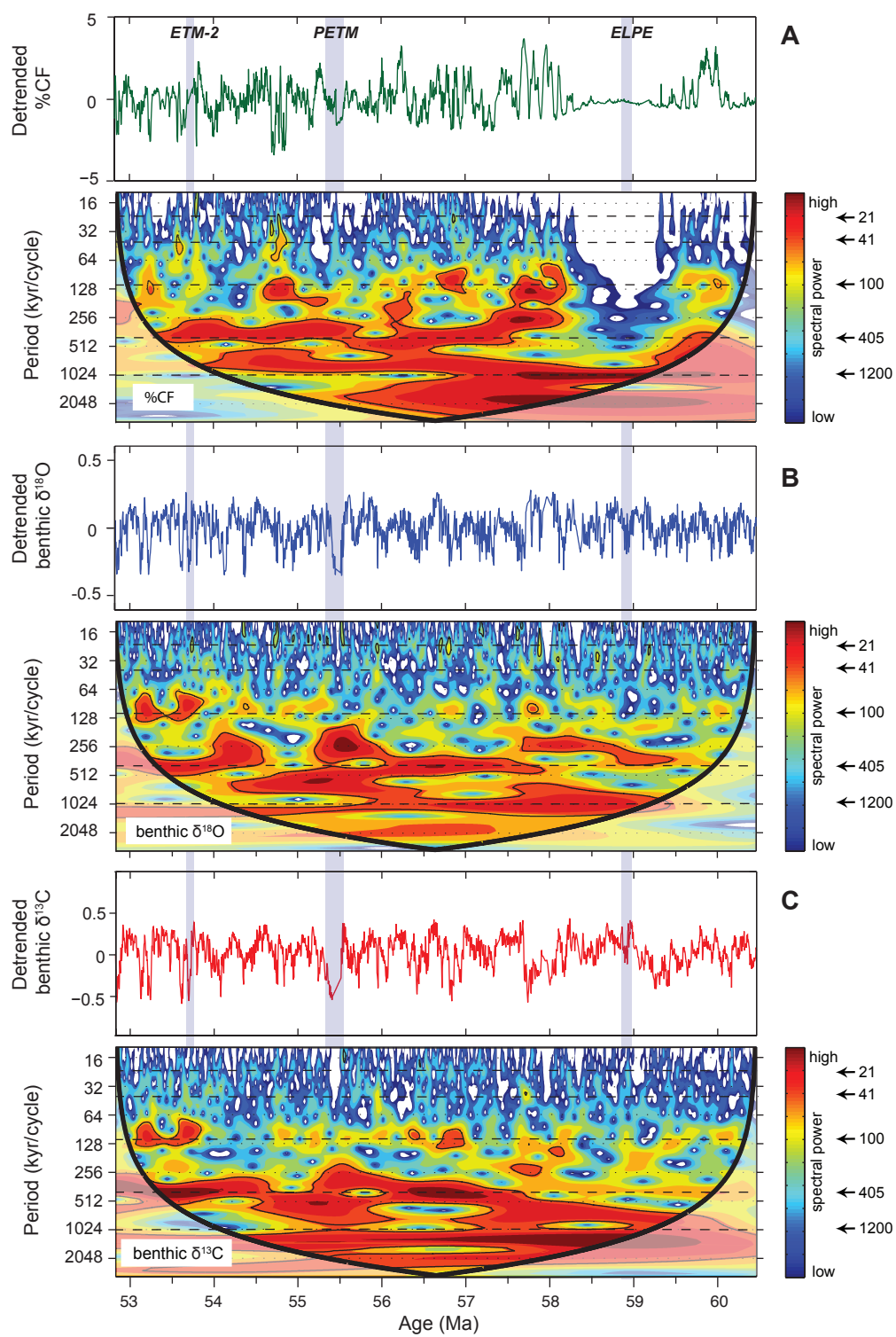


Figure 5.

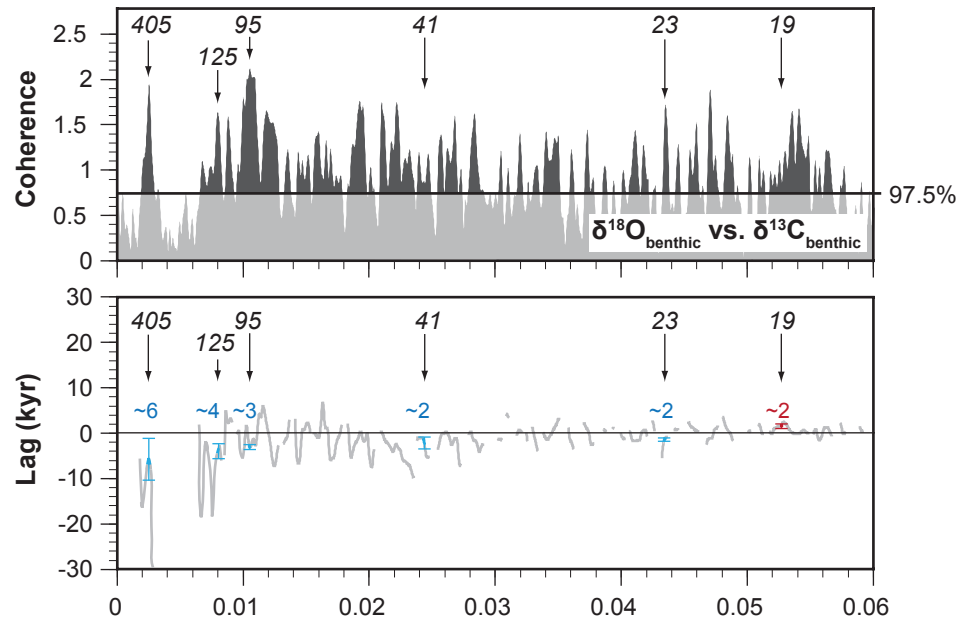
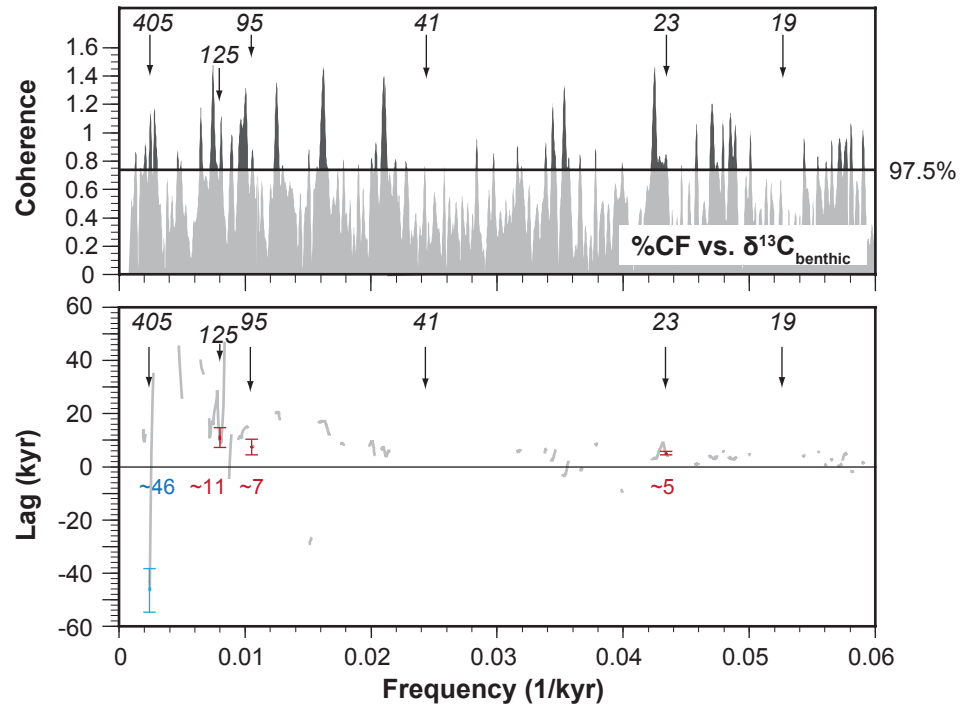
A**B**

Figure 6.

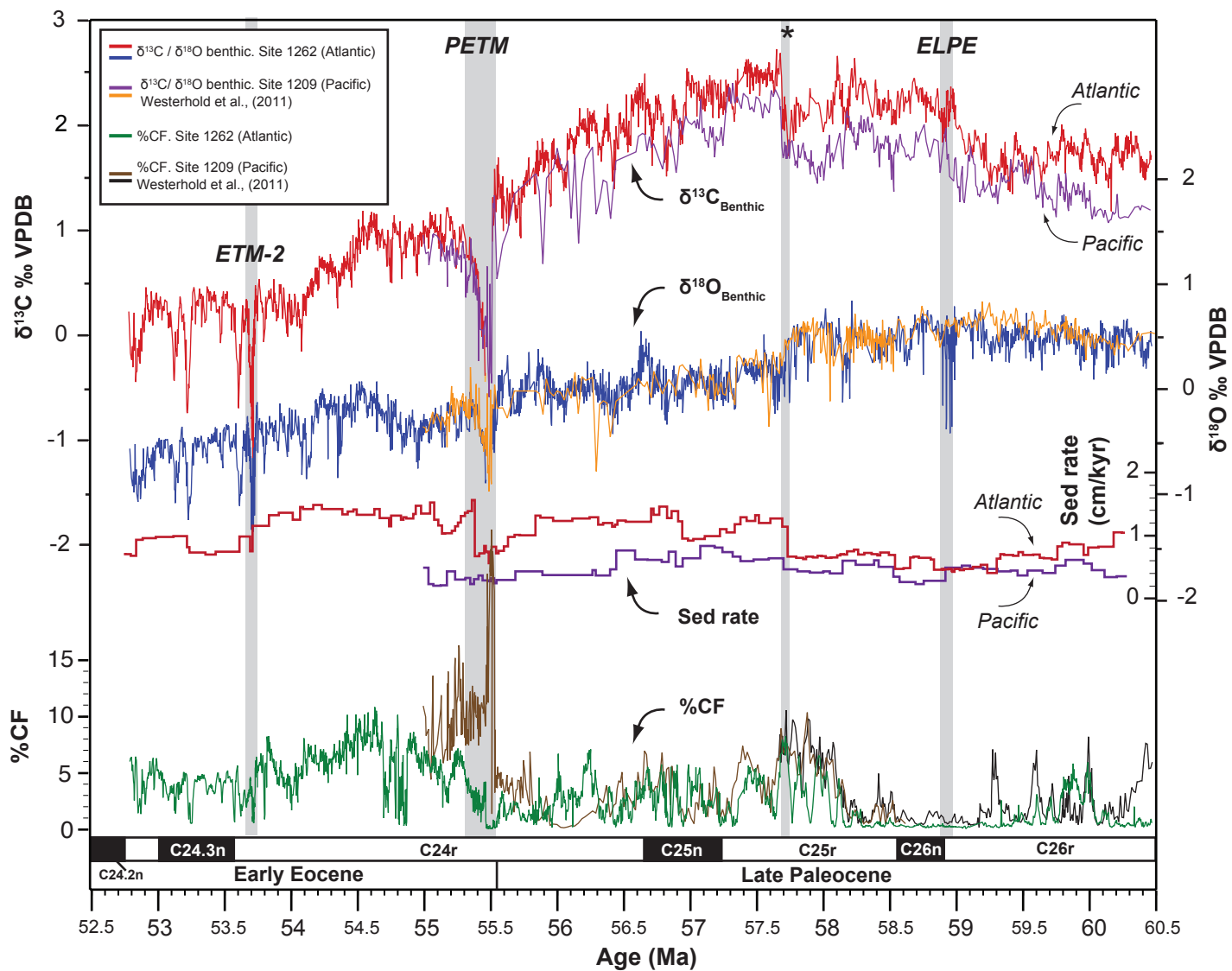


Figure 7.

A high-resolution benthic stable-isotope record for the South Atlantic: implications for orbital-scale changes in Late Paleocene–Early Eocene climate and carbon cycling

Kate Littler; Ursula Röhl; Thomas Westerhold; James C. Zachos

Supplementary Information

Supplementary figures:

Fig. S1. All isotope and %CF data from Site 1262 plotted against depth (mcd).

Fig. S2. Paleocene isotopic and %CF data from the Atlantic and Pacific, for A) the Mid -PCIM event, and B) the ELPE event.

Fig. S3. Benthic stable isotope data from the Eocene at ODP Site 1262.

Fig. S4. All oxygen-isotope data from ODP Site 1262 plotted against age.

Fig. S5. Benthic stable-isotope and %CF data from the Late Paleocene at Site 1262 plotted against age, showing the prominent eccentricity-paced variation.

Fig. S6. Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral phase estimates, coherence and phasing, between oxygen- and carbon-isotope records for four discrete windows of time.

Fig. S7. Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral phase estimates, coherence and phasing, between %CF and carbon-isotope records for four discrete windows of time.

Tables S1 & S2. Coherency and phasing data for both the entire record and discrete windows of time, at key orbital frequencies.

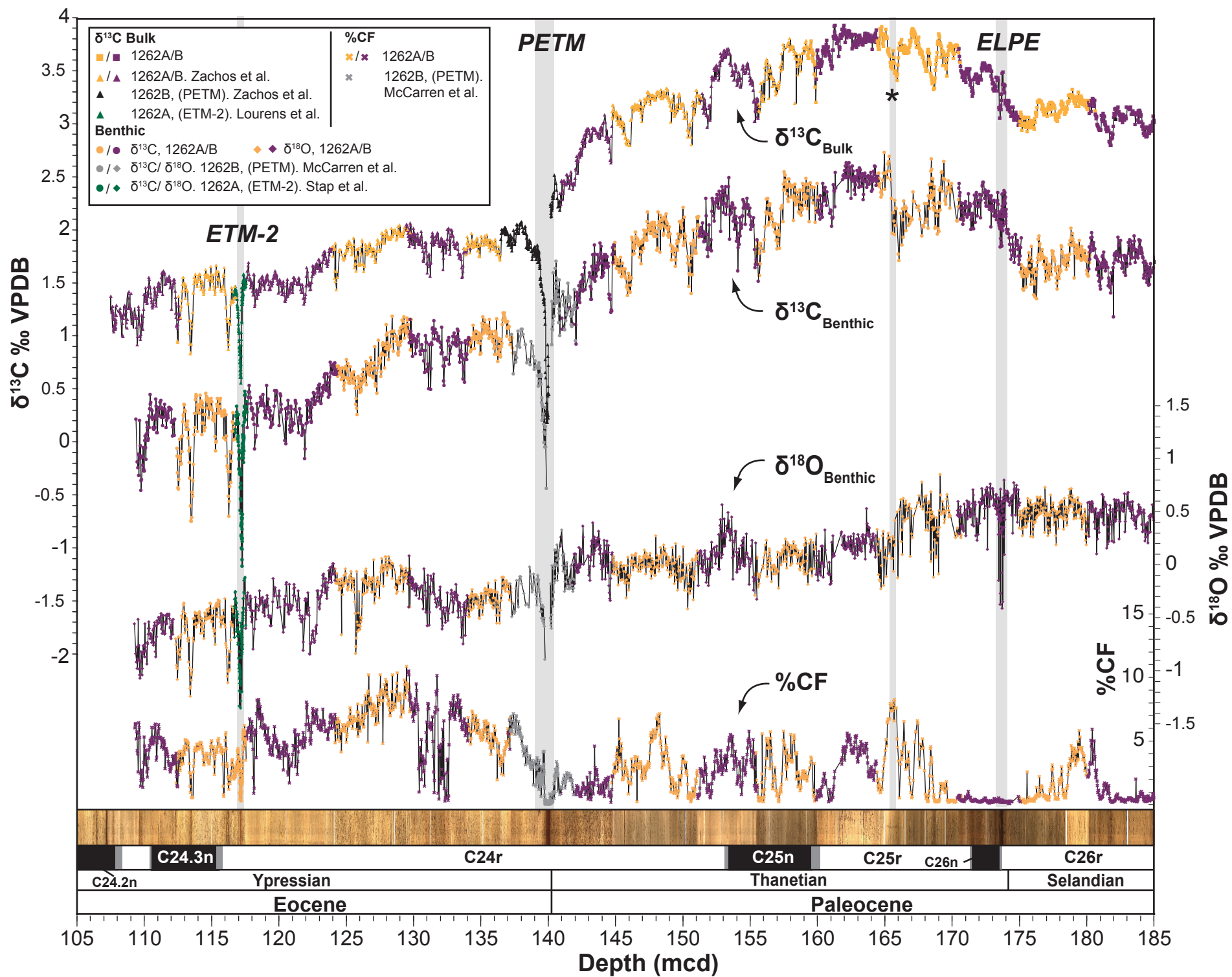


Figure S1. All isotope and %CF data from Site 1262 plotted against depth (mcd).

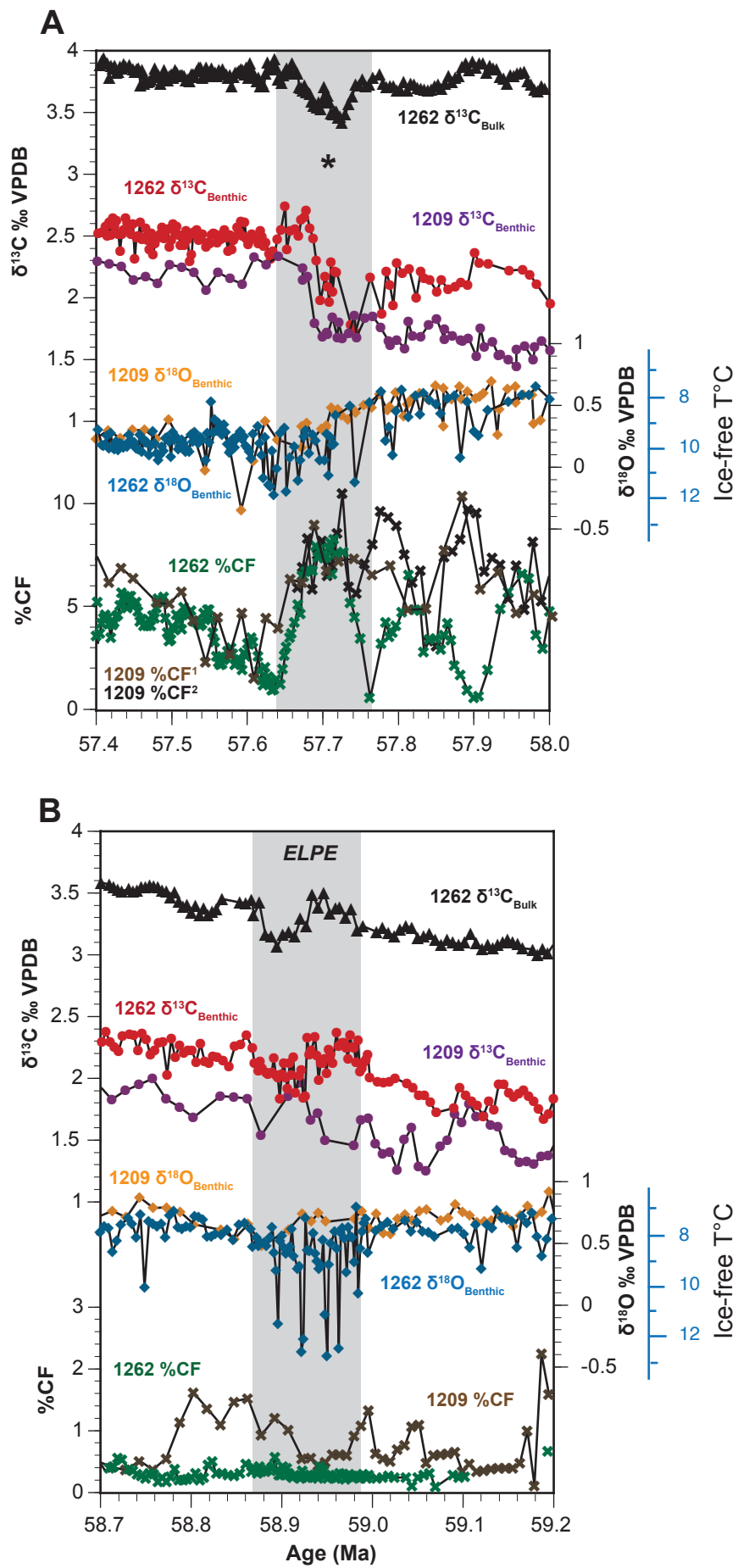


Figure S2. Paleocene isotopic and %CF data from Site 1262 (Atlantic) and Site 1209 (Pacific; Westerhold et al., 2011) for: A) 58.7–59.2 Ma, the “peak-PCIM” event near the middle of Chron C25r; and B) 57.4–58 Ma, the ELPE event. At Site 1209, %CF¹ (brown) = >63 μm ; %CF² (black) = >38 μm fraction.

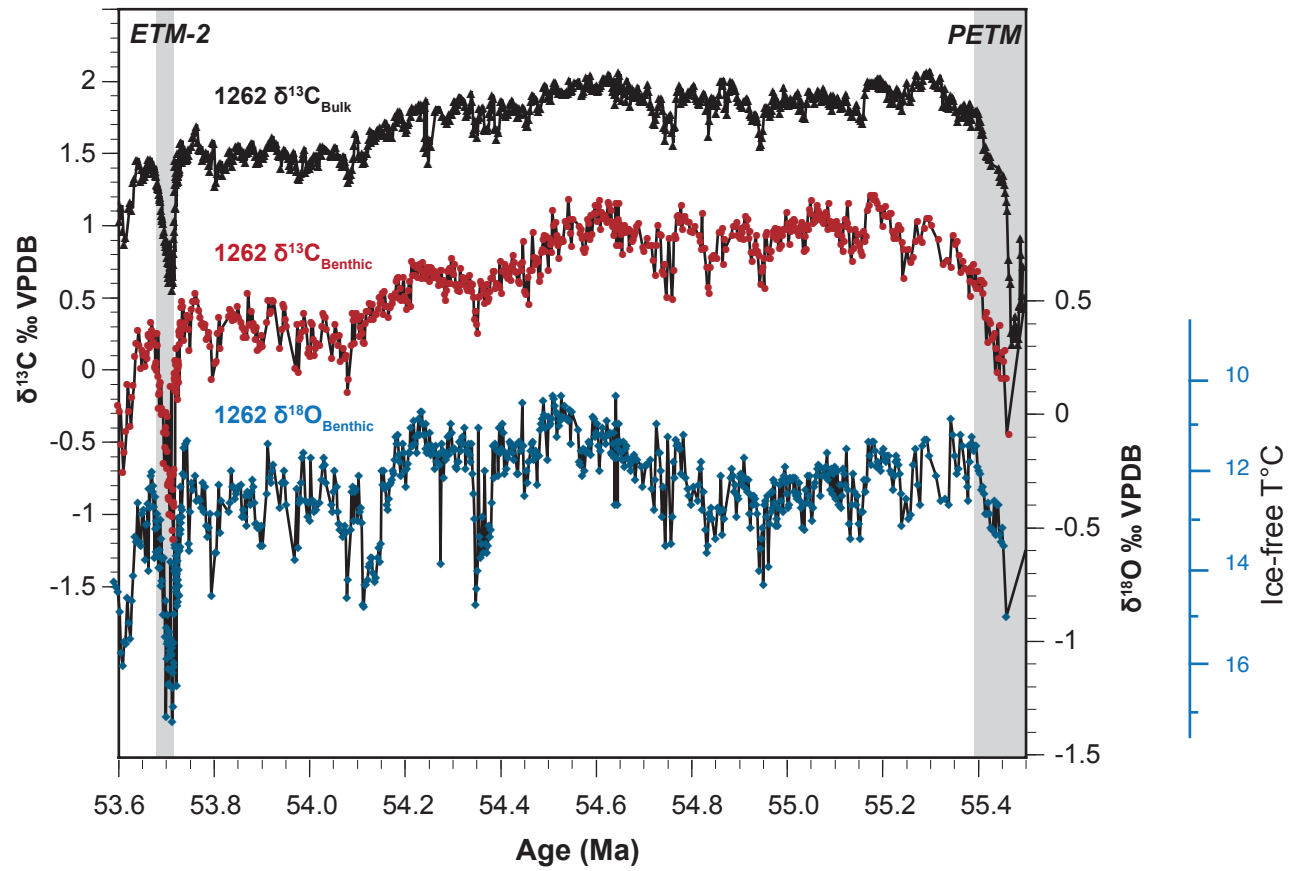


Figure S3. Benthic stable isotope data from the Eocene at Site 1262 showing cooling reversal at 54.5–54.9 Ma, and reestablishment of the negative trend in carbon isotopes at ~54.6 Ma.

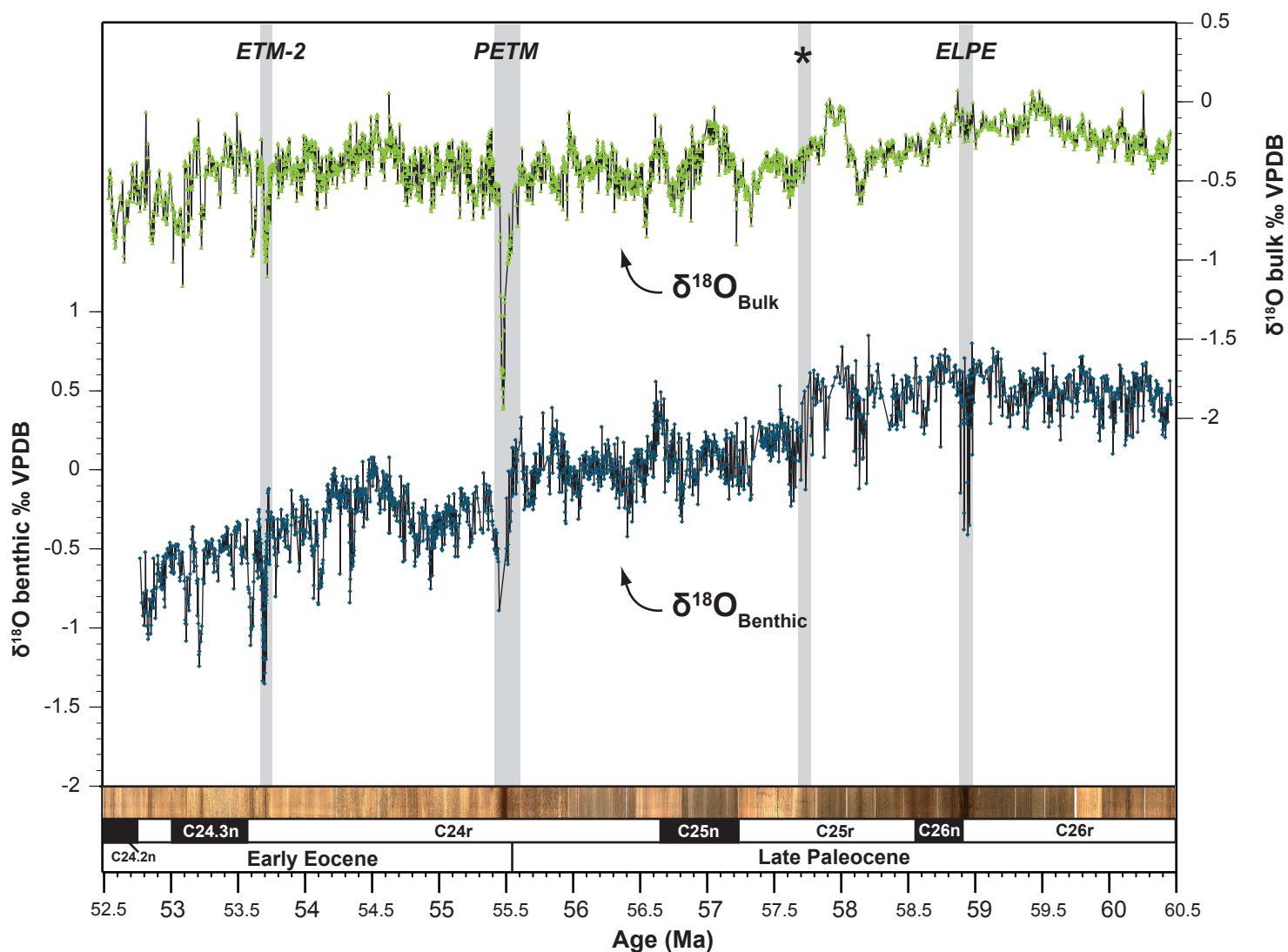


Figure S4. All oxygen-isotope data, benthic (this study) and bulk (Zachos et al., 2010), from ODP Site 1262 plotted against age

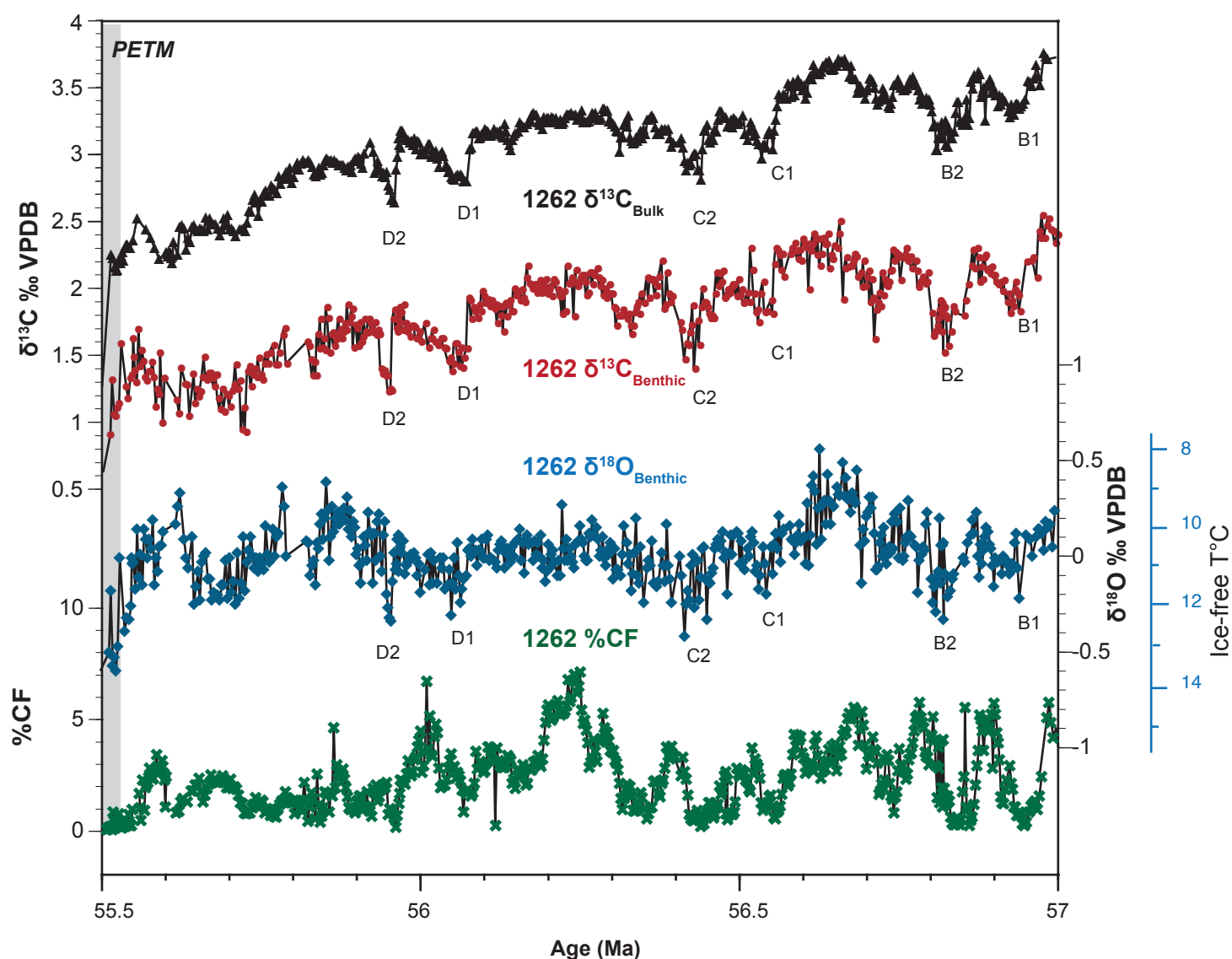
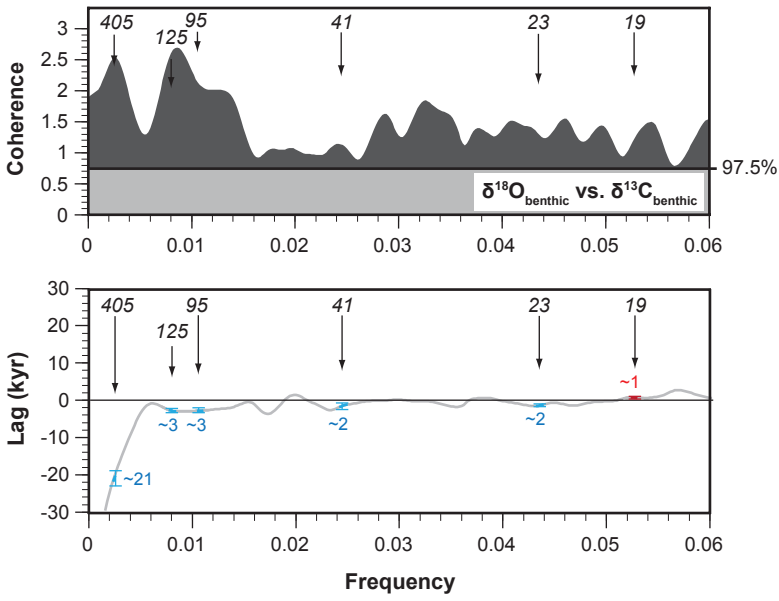
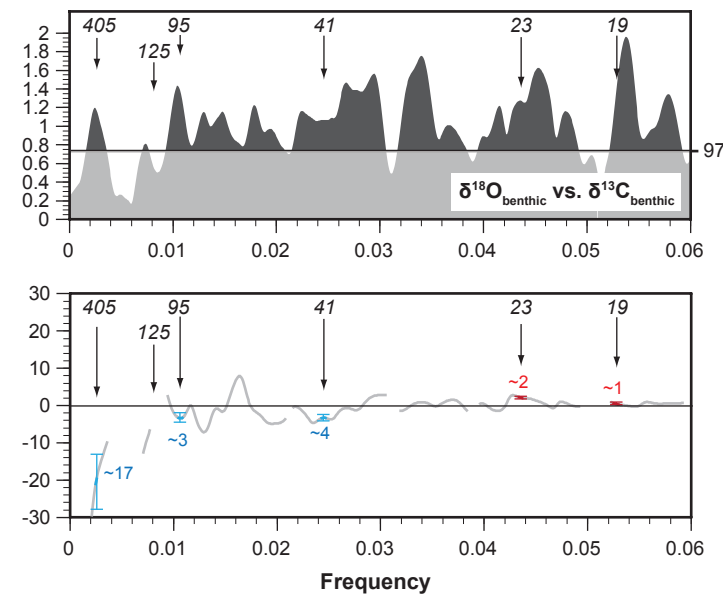


Figure S5. Benthic stable-isotope and %CF data from the Late Paleocene at Site 1262 plotted against age, showing the prominent eccentricity-paced variation. Close covariation on orbital timescales between both $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and isotopic records and %CF, is clearly visible. Changes in bottom water temperature of $\sim 4^\circ\text{C}$ from the large C2 to B2 405 kyr, and changes of $\sim 1.5^\circ\text{C}$ associated with the larger 100-kyr paced events such as D2, can be seen in the benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record.

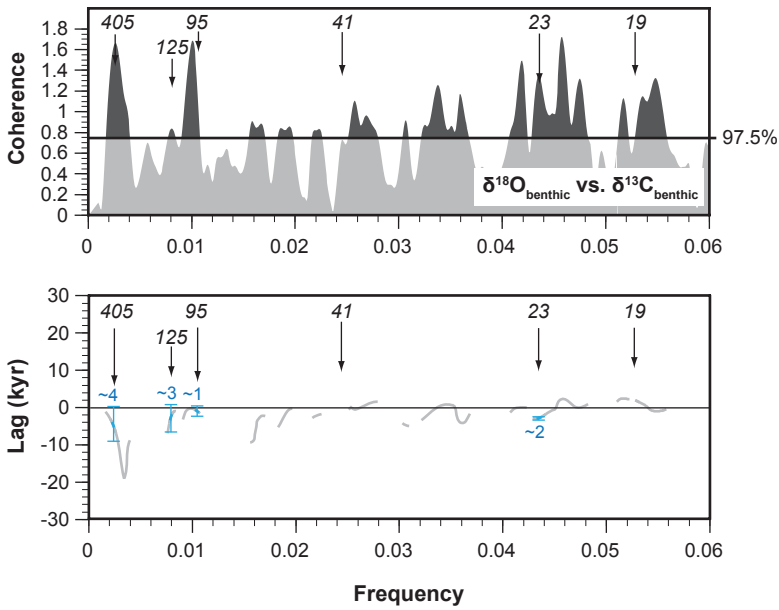
Window 1: Early Eocene (~52.7–53.8 Ma) [1.1 myrs]



Window 2: Early Eocene (~53.8–55.3 Ma) [1.5 myrs]



Window 3: Late Paleocene (~55.5–57.7 Ma) [2.2 myrs]



Window 4: Late Paleocene (~57.7–60.5 Ma) [2.8 myrs]

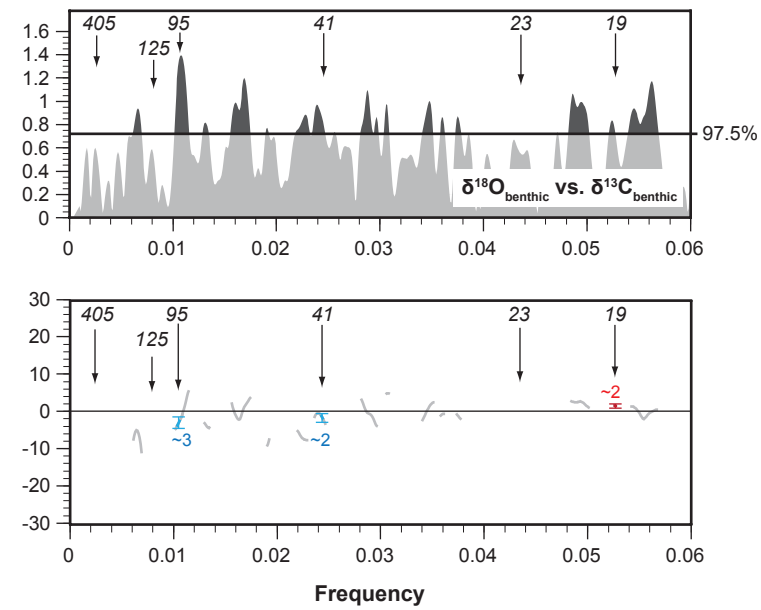
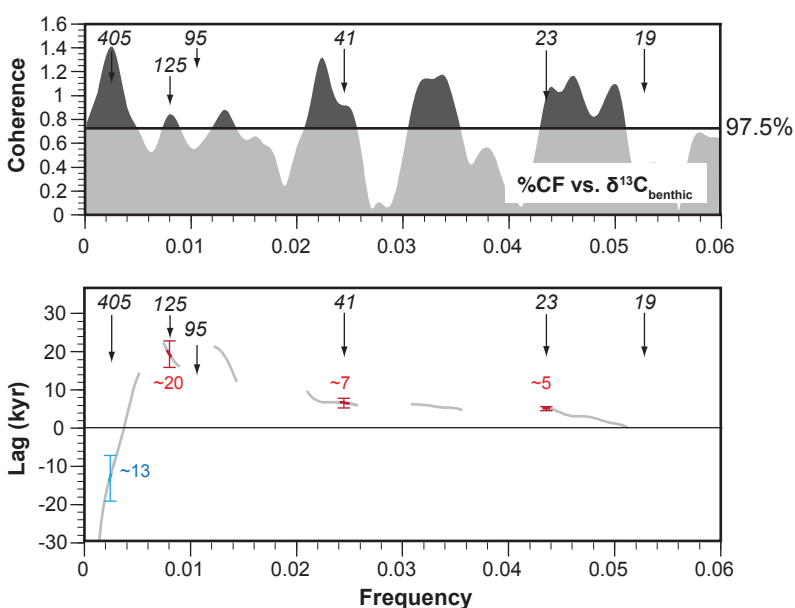
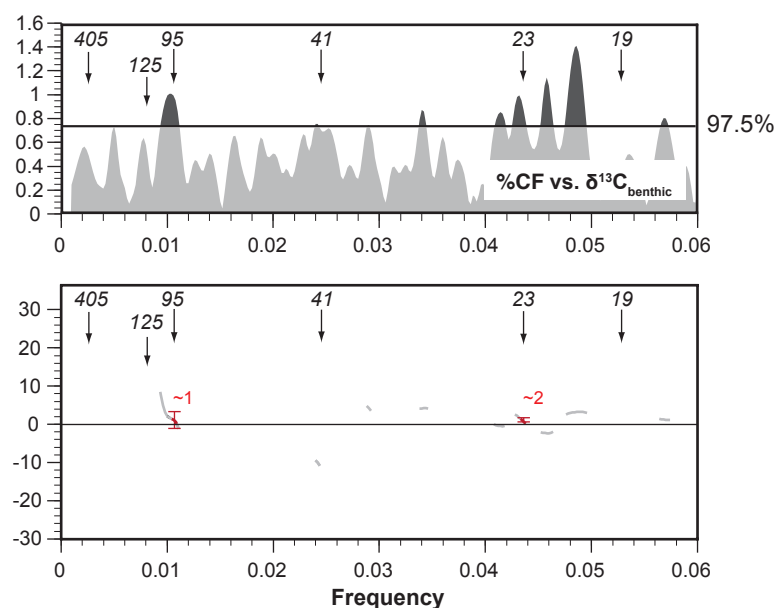


Figure S6. Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral phase estimates, coherence and phasing, between oxygen- and carbon-isotope records for four discrete windows of time (Window 1 and 2: Eocene; Window 3 and 4: Paleocene). See Fig. 6 for cross-spectral phase estimates for the entire record. See Fig. 3 for the location of the “W” windows relative to the stable-isotope records.

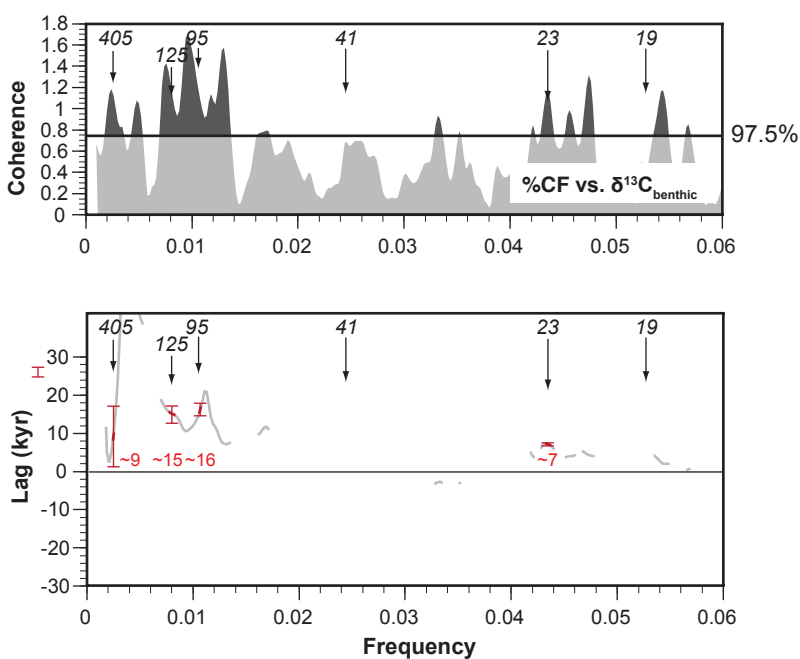
Window 1: Early Eocene (~52.7–53.8 Ma) [1.1 myrs]



Window 2: Early Eocene (~53.8–55.3 Ma) [1.5 myrs]



Window 3: Late Paleocene (~55.5–57.7 Ma) [2.2 myrs]



Window 4: Late Paleocene (~57.7–60.5 Ma) [2.8 myrs]

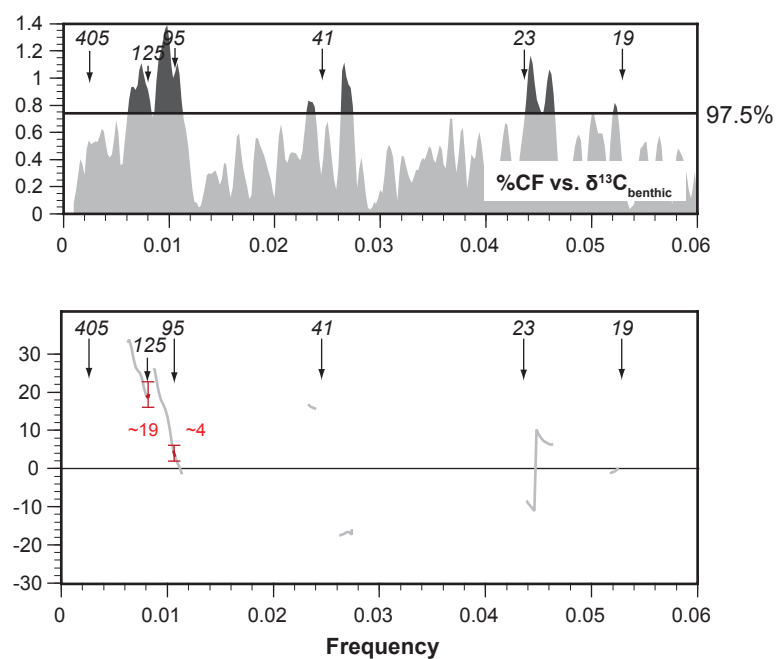


Figure S7. Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral phase estimates, coherence and phasing, between %CF and carbon-isotope records for four discrete windows of time (Window 1 and 2: Eocene; Window 3 and 4: Paleocene). See Fig. 6 for cross-spectral phase estimates for the entire record. See Fig. 3 for the location of the “W” windows relative to the stable-isotope records.

Whole record: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.672031) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 1.79692 | -5.65 | -10.41 | -0.88 |
| 125 kyr | 0.008 | 1.63440 | -3.95 | -5.69 | -2.20 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 2.11371 | -3.16 | -3.96 | -2.37 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 0.87359 | -2.24 | -3.67 | -0.81 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 1.44640 | -1.49 | -1.89 | -1.10 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 1.09178 | 1.55 | 1.05 | 2.04 |

Whole record: %CF vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.737575) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 1.12209 | -46.53 | -54.76 | -38.30 |
| 125 kyr | 0.008 | 0.86335 | 10.89 | 7.33 | 14.46 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 0.83449 | 7.36 | 4.53 | 10.19 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 0.35757 | -6.95 | -10.10 | -3.80 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 0.84733 | 5.03 | 4.36 | 5.70 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 0.50024 | -5.11 | -6.13 | -4.09 |

Table S1. Coherency and phasing data for the entire 7.7 myr long record at key orbital frequencies generated using Analyseries Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral analysis. Values in brackets represent the threshold coherency value at the 97.5% CI. Data is plotted in Fig. 6.

Window 1, Eocene: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.738192) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 2.51818 | -21.09 | -22.97 | -19.21 |
| 125 kyr | 0.0080 | 2.59823 | -2.78 | -3.30 | -2.26 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 2.13554 | -2.83 | -3.46 | -2.20 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 1.13939 | -1.65 | -2.46 | -0.84 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 1.32461 | -1.49 | -1.85 | -1.12 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 1.17498 | 0.72 | 0.36 | 1.08 |

Window 2, Eocene: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.737782) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 1.19518 | -20.62 | -28.03 | -13.22 |
| 125 kyr | 0.0080 | 0.60841 | -4.72 | -10.11 | 0.66 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 1.43375 | -3.35 | -4.69 | -2.01 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 1.06917 | -3.33 | -4.22 | -2.44 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 1.27101 | 2.24 | 1.85 | 2.63 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 1.13821 | 0.53 | 0.15 | 0.90 |

Window 3, Paleocene: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.742183) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 1.60522 | -4.40 | -9.24 | 0.44 |
| 125 kyr | 0.0080 | 0.83422 | -2.78 | -6.50 | 0.93 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 1.32471 | -1.04 | -2.55 | 0.48 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 0.68875 | -0.48 | -2.01 | 1.05 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 1.33064 | -2.93 | -3.29 | -2.56 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 0.61719 | 2.45 | 1.65 | 3.26 |

Window 4, Paleocene: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.737908) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 0.58444 | -15.61 | -34.39 | 3.17 |
| 125 kyr | 0.008 | 0.58818 | -3.20 | -8.79 | 2.40 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 1.296218638 | -2.98 | -4.55 | -1.42 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 0.86213 | -1.75 | -2.92 | -0.57 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 0.57708 | 0.32 | -0.73 | 1.38 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 0.80043 | 1.41 | 0.81 | 2.00 |

Table S2a. Coherency and phasing data for discrete windows of time at key orbital frequencies, for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ benthic data, generated using Analyseries Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral analysis. Values in brackets represent the threshold coherency value at the 97.5% CI. Data is plotted in Fig. S6.

Window 1, Eocene: %CF vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.729578) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 1.41084 | -13.04 | -19.06 | -7.03 |
| 125 kyr | 0.008 | 0.84286 | 19.54 | 15.86 | 23.22 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 0.56364 | 19.89 | 15.46 | 24.32 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 0.91913 | 6.73 | 5.64 | 7.81 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 0.96693 | 5.23 | 4.66 | 5.80 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 0.39143 | -4.00 | -5.33 | -2.67 |

Window 2, Eocene: %CF vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.737782) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 0.53979 | -51.30 | -71.81 | -30.78 |
| 125 kyr | 0.008 | 0.57941 | -15.39 | -21.08 | -9.70 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 0.99597 | 1.14 | -1.11 | 3.38 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 0.71854 | -10.79 | -12.25 | -9.33 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 0.95438 | 1.23 | 0.65 | 1.81 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 0.20967 | -5.77 | -8.35 | -3.19 |

Window 3, Paleocene: %CF vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.737840) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 1.18552 | 9.16 | 1.35 | 16.96 |
| 125 kyr | 0.008 | 1.23248 | 14.92 | 12.70 | 17.13 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 1.19673 | 16.25 | 14.51 | 18.00 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 0.67453 | 2.68 | 1.11 | 4.25 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 1.14395 | 7.12 | 6.67 | 7.58 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 0.47913 | 0.49 | -0.58 | 1.55 |

Window 4, Paleocene: %CF vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic

| Orbital frequency | Frequency | Coherency (0.737908) | Lag (kyr) | Max Lag (kyr) | Min Lag (kyr) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 405 kyr | 0.00247 | 0.54238 | 64.94 | 44.54 | 85.35 |
| 125 kyr | 0.008 | 0.91532 | 19.34 | 16.02 | 22.65 |
| 95 kyr | 0.01053 | 1.04355 | 3.99 | 1.88 | 6.10 |
| 41 kyr | 0.02439 | 0.28302 | 18.23 | 14.20 | 22.26 |
| 23 kyrs | 0.0434 | 0.54647 | -8.39 | -9.50 | -7.27 |
| 19 kyrs | 0.0526 | 0.66113 | 0.06 | -0.68 | 0.81 |

Table S2b. Coherency and phasing data for discrete windows of time at key orbital frequencies, for %CF vs. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ benthic data, generated using AnalyseSeries Blackman-Tukey cross-spectral analysis. Values in brackets represent the threshold coherency value at the 97.5% CI. Data is plotted in Fig. S7.